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Dogmatism and Philosophy: Their Relation to Teacher Acceptance and Understanding of the New Social Studies

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DOGMATISM AND PHILOSOPHY:
THEIR RELATION TO TEACHER ACCEPTANCE AND UNDERSTANDING OF THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES

by

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1. Barth-Shermis continuum according to Barr.

ABSTRACT

Dogmatism and Philosophy: Their Relation to Teacher Acceptance and Understanding of the New Social Studies

by

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This research project was a study to determine the relationship of two characteristics--dogmatism and educational philosophy--to teachers' acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies (NSS).

The sample consisted of 222 secondary social studies teachers from three counties in the San Francisco Bay Area. Questionnaires were mailed to schools selected at random and were administered by an agent, in most cases, the department chairman, to all social studies teachers in the school, during a single administration period.

The questionnaire utilized four measurement scales. Troldahl and Powell's Short Form Dogmatism Scale and Curran's Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy, published and used in previous studies, were employed. A two-part social studies test, designated the S Scale, was developed for this study. Part 1, the Acceptance Scale, consisted of 16 statements constructed using a Likert-type scale to test teacher acceptance of the NSS. Part 2, the Understanding Scale, was designed to test teacher understanding of the rationales of the NSS. Respondents were

asked to rate 18 statements about the social studies along a three position continuum from traditional to "new".

Results indicated that both degree of dogmatism and educational philosophy were significantly related ($P < .01$) to teacher acceptance and understanding of the rationales of the NSS.

Neither sex, age, nor years of teaching experience were significantly related to a teacher's degree of dogmatism or educational philosophy, nor were those variables significantly related to acceptance or understanding of the NSS.

The only significant difference among undergraduate group mean scores on any of the tests was for the Dogmatism Scale, significant at the .05 level. The area in which respondents received master's degrees, including not having one, was not significantly related to scores on any of the tests; and the only significant difference on the tests in a comparison of all who had received the master's degree against those who had not was on the Dogmatism Scale, where the difference was significant at the .01 level.

Whether teachers had attended one or more social studies institutes or had never attended an institute had no significant relationship to their mean dogmatism or educational philosophy scores. Also, there were no significant differences on any of the tests between respondents who had applied for and those who had never applied for a summer social studies institute fellowship.

When grouped by membership in professional organizations, the respondents were not significantly different in their mean acceptance, understanding, dogmatism, or philosophy scores.

It was found that, for this sample, teachers' degree of dogmatism and educational philsophical orientation are significantly related to the extent to which they accept and/or understand the rationales and strategies of the New Social Studies.

(189 pages)

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

During the late 1950's and early 1960's, educational leaders in many fields reappraised the content, methodology, goals, and objectives of their disciplines. Their aim was to find more effective ways to better prepare students to function in and contribute to a society which had been drastically changing, particularly since World War II. The first, and most dramatic, curriculum revisions came about in the science and mathematics fields. These areas were assigned highest national priority because of the emotional impact caused by the Russian launching of their Sputnik in 1957. However, the social studies curriculum had not received significant attention since 1916 when the Committee on the Social Studies recommended the now familiar K-12 scope and sequence. (See Oliver, 1968, pp. 17-42 for an excellent summary of the Report of the Committee on the Social Studies, 1916. See also Massialas & Cox, 1966, pp. 27-29.)

The 1916 committee, in proposing a sequence of social studies course offerings, postulated citizenship education as the central goal of social studies instruction. Shaver and Oliver (1968, p. 327), concluded that despite that stated goal, "history for history's sake has continued to dominate social studies teaching." Their charge that social studies content has borne little relation to stated citizenship objectives appears to be valid. For example, the problems with which social studies educators have purported to help their students deal, such as racism, poverty, overpopulation, and environmental abuse, are still plaguing the

nation. Although Shaver and Oliver do not imply that with improved social studies programs the problems will be solved, they and most contemporary social studies curriculum developers agree that a major purpose of the social studies is to help students understand the causes and effects of pressing social issues. Yet it seems that courses made up primarily of descriptions from history, and on occasion, the social sciences, have not helped people learn to deal effectively with the nation's problems.

Many social studies curriculum specialists (Hunt & Metcalf, 1955; Metcalf, 1963; Massialas, 1963; Engle, 1960, 1968, 1970; Shaver, 1967) have contended that the curriculum must focus on public issues rather than history and social science knowledge in order to help students make rationale decisions concerning their own commitments to the preservation and strengthening of their democratic society.

In the early and middle 1950's, many critics charged that the social studies curriculum needed to be overhauled. Beginning about 1957 the federal government, and to a lesser extent, private foundations, financed several social studies curriculum revision projects. Curriculum developers, believing that the conventional texts and courses of study were built-in obstacles to change (Fenton, 1967, p. 2), revised materials and teaching strategies. At the same time, they re-evaluated the principles that were being taught, and in some cases established different priorities and emphases. The products of these curriculum developers collectively have been called the New Social Studies. (See Lester, Bond, & Knox, 1969, and Sanders & Tanck, 1970, pp. 383-447 for progress reports and descriptions of many of the projects.)

During the past decade, and particularly during the past few years, various social studies projects have been completed; some have been field-tested, evaluated, and modified. Reports, containing background information, developmental procedures, materials and suggestions for activities, have been widely distributed to "input and evaluation" schools. Many products are being sold by commercial publishers. Many teachers are anxious to get these materials, which, almost without exception, are claimed by the developers to hold the interest of the students to a greater degree than the standard textbook.

What most of the projects have attempted, in a variety of ways, is to develop materials and strategies that have students learn, not so much the findings of the various disciplines, but the ways in which the scholars go about examining problems from the standpoint of their particular disciplines.

Virtually every project emphasizes the importance of training students in the processes of inquiry (Fenton, 1966), although not all agree on the form and substance of inquiry. For example, in his early work, Fenton (1966, pp. 264-274) devised exercises and selected content which set up the student to reach conclusions that were already determined and outlined for the teacher. That kind of inquiry came under attack and some critics even charged that materials so designed were intellectually and pedagogically dishonest. They believed that the intent of inquiry should be open-ended pursuit, as distinguished from acquiescent receptivity, and the development of the learner's ability and will to find out for himself (Fraser, 1967, p. 26). To these people, an important desired outcome of engagement in inquiry is that students should be able to identify significant problems and seriously search for satisfactory

answers for themselves (Barth & Shermis, 1970, p. 743).

Each curriculum project which has emphasized inquiry has contained, in varying degrees, certain other common elements. Tucker (1965) identified three characteristics of an inquiry-centered social studies curriculum:

1. The learners are active and the content is problem-centered.
2. It emphasizes the systematic study of problems, issues, and values.
3. It becomes progressively less teacher directed, calling upon students to engage each other in questioning and clarification of points. (Tucker, 1965, p. 29)

There is not universal agreement about these or other characteristics of inquiry-oriented projects, however, the lack of consensus makes it difficult to define the New Social Studies. Representative definitions of social studies will be discussed in Chapter II to identify confusions about what the goals and objectives of the social studies ought to be.

It has been assumed by many leaders in the field that once teachers were freed from the constrictions of a textbook, students would be freed from the memorization and regurgitation of loosely related facts. The project materials were to be the foundation for a "revolution" in the social studies (Fenton, 1967). However, curriculum reform has not had the expected impact (See McElroy & Templeton, 1969; Shaver, 1969; Smith, R.B., 1968).

Despite striking changes in some districts, in schools across the country, the large majority of social studies teachers appear to still be engaging in "teacher telling, text-book reading, and lesson hearing." (Beyer, 1967, p. 199). Yet much of the current professional literature challenges teachers to have their students formulate questions, gather, analyze, and interpret data in order that the students may make decisions

about complex social issues. Why more teachers have not modified their methods and strategies to accommodate the inquiry-centered curriculum developed by the various projects is an important question. This study explores related factors that may shed some light on that question. There is little evidence from most project reports that the project directors considered the teacher to be the key to the successful execution of the program. Some project directors apparently have believed that with carefully developed, high-interest materials, including teachers' manuals which clearly spell out daily and unit objectives, teachers would have no difficulty in transmitting the "package" to their students.

Although not stated explicitly in the project reports, most of the materials seem to have been built around assumptions about the teachers who would use them, and adoption and successful use may well depend upon the validity of those assumptions:

1. Teachers are in philosophical agreement with the rationales, strategies, and content of the New Social Studies.
2. Teachers possess the requisite skills to utilize the project materials.
3. Teachers are openminded, and therefore receptive to change.
4. Teachers accept and understand the rationales and strategies of the New Social Studies.

The first assumption, that teachers are in philosophical agreement with the rationales, strategies, and content of the New Social Studies is apparently held by many curriculum developers. Teachers' manuals and supporting materials (suggested activities, examples of modes of

inquiry which may be employed to illustrate particular concepts and generate discussions) say little, if anything, about the attitudes the teacher should have concerning his role in the classroom. He is shown how to direct an inquiry lesson, and it is further assumed that he will behave as suggested. Yet, if the teacher possesses an educational philosophy which dictates that he is the purveyor of a prescribed body of data, there is a strong likelihood he will reject, or at least find difficult to use, the strategies the developers have built into their programs.

The teacher's philosophy of education has been traditionally defined as the beliefs and values he holds about education--his role, and the role of the learner. Even with the carefully defined teaching suggestions described in most of the projects, the teacher's philosophy is likely to exert considerable influence on his teaching behavior, and therefore on the outcomes obtained with the curriculum materials he is asked to use.

The importance of the teacher's philosophy to the social studies classroom was clearly implied by Charles Beard in 1934:

> Every human being brought up in society inevitably has in mind a frame of social knowledge, ideas, and ideals--a more or less definite pattern of things deemed necessary, things deemed possible, and things deemed desirable; and to this frame or pattern, his thought and action will be more or less consciously referred. This frame may be large or small; it may embrace an immense store of knowledge or little knowledge; it may be well organized with respect to categories of social thought or confused and blurred in organization; and the ideal element in it may represent the highest or lowest aspirations of mankind. But frame there is in every human mind. This is known, if anything is known. If the fact be denied, if a large, clarified, and informed frame of purposes is rejected, is deliberately and ostentatiously put out at the front door of the mind, then small, provincial, local, class, group, or personal prejudices will come in at the rear

> door, occupy the background of the mind, and constitute the frame. This conclusion of contemporary social thought applies to those who formulate objectives and curricula for the schools, to teachers who expound them, and to the writers of treatises on the social sciences. To repeat Cole's formula: no one can profess to know everything or to believe nothing, to possess the whole truth or to exercise no preference in the selection, arrangement, and presentation of materials for thought and instruction with respect to particular truths.
>
> ... [I]n the light of the findings that some frame of reference, some conception of arrangements deemed real, possible, and desirable, will in fact control the selection and organization of materials in the social sciences--whether with respect to objectives and curriculum, or to great treatises in history, economics, politics, or sociology--controversies over such intellectual operations as synthesis, integration, fusion, and correlation are also resolved ... Any formulation of objectives, selection of materials, or organization of knowledge is controlled fundamentally by the frame of social reference, the picture of arrangements deemed real, possible, and desirable, existing in the mind of the formulator, selector, or organizer. (Beard, 1968, pp. 15-16)

Now, forty years later, there is little evidence that Beard's insights into the nature of and functions of teachers' frames of reference, their educational philosophies, if you will, have been heeded by the contemporary curriculum developers who, almost without exception, fail to test whether teachers in general possess the ideas and ideals and are accepting of the cognitive structures upon which most of the new materials are based. About the teacher, Shaver has said:

> ... teachers often do not engage in creatively restructuring their curriculum because they lack the necessary professional commitment to do so. ... The frame of reference of many teachers is not likely to lead to demands for or production of startling changes in the social studies curriculum. (Shaver, 1967, p. 592)

Several persons who have studied teacher characteristics and educational philosophy over the past fifteen years (Clark, Klein, & Burks, 1965; Gowin, Newsome, & Chandler, 1961; Kerlinger, 1956, 1958; and Kerlinger & Kaya, 1959a, 1959b) have concluded that educational

philosophy can be described basically along two dimensions--traditional and progressive. The "traditional" teacher is characterized as holding a narrow educational viewpoint, emphasizing subject matter mastery, and teaching his students what he believes they should know; the "Progressive teacher emphasizes problem solving, education based upon children's interests and needs, equality and warmth in interpersonal relationships, and education as an instrument of social change." (Sears, 1967, p. 47)

The latter description generally fits the assumptions about the teacher able to effectively utilize the strategies of the New Social Studies; the project materials seem unsuited to the characteristics of the former, or "traditional," teacher. One important reason for this study is a concern that there may be dissonance between the educational philosophy of many teachers and the assumptions of New Social Studies projects. Such dissonance might be a contributing factor in the lack of impact of the New Social Studies across the country.

The second assumption that seems to be basic to many of the social studies projects, that teachers possess the requisite skills to utilize effectively the project materials, may be based upon another assumption--that teacher education institutions are not only aware of the kinds of demands the new curricula make of teachers, but have been changing their programs to prepare teachers with the requisite instructional skills. This assumption may not be valid, however. Smith (1968, p. 338) claimed that an important reason curriculum reform in social studies had not had the expected impact was outdated teacher education. Beyer (1967, p. 202) stated that "most methods courses offered today are, frankly, a waste of time ... . Few deal with the actual essence of teaching--the planning,

execution and evaluation of specific teaching strategies." Several years ago, Metcalf (1963, p. 199) predicted that unless the methods course was revolutionized, it would probably be abolished. And, in a study of 350 members of the New York State Council for the Social Studies (Lorie & Corbin, 1970, p. 289), 94 percent of the respondents said what was needed was a good methods course, but 42 percent said present methods courses were a waste of time.

Patrick (1968, p. 30) suggested that teachers are not trained in methods courses to teach their students to develop inquiry skills or engage in critical thinking activities. Patrick further argued that teachers learn from the school hierarchy in subtle ways to "emphasize the importance of authority, obedience to law, and conformity to school regulations, and [thus] tend to disregard the importance of active, democratic participation."

The United States Office of Education (USOE), although not necessarily agreeing with the critics who say that teacher training is inadequate to meet current needs, has recognized that the new curricula make new and different demands upon teachers. That office, along with the National Science Foundation, has supported programs to acquaint teachers with new materials and suggest strategies, largely through funding summer institutes and year-long training programs for in-service teachers.

Whether teachers are being trained to deal effectively with the New Social Studies (NSS) is not within the scope of this study; yet it is apparent that research needs to be carried out to help guide social studies education departments in making organizational and pedagogical decisions.

This study is related to the second assumption (about the possession of requisite skills) peripherally, if the possession of "requisite skills" is assumed to be dependent on the appropriate type of underlying belief system. That some teachers may be unable to develop the kinds of classroom skills necessary to successfully meet the objectives of the NSS appears to be tied closely to the third assumption, that teachers are openminded, and therefore receptive to change. For, attempts to improve instruction will, in large measure, be dependent upon the ability and willingness of the teacher to modify his teaching behavior.

Teachers are more likely to reject new information and teaching strategies if they are closeminded, characterized by Rokeach as:

> A closed way of thinking which could be associated with any ideology, regardless of content, an authoritarian outlook on life, an intolerance toward those with opposing beliefs, and sufferance toward those with similar beliefs.(Rokeach, 1960, pp. 4-5)

Some studies (e.g., Frymier, 1969; McElroy & Templeton, 1969), indicate that closed minded teachers are likely to be less innovative or open to change than are openminded teachers. Sears (1967), in his study of the relationship between teacher dogmatism and philosophical orientation, concluded that closedminded teachers would be more likely to avoid or reject experiences which modified their teaching behavior, and be less understanding of students and the problems. Also, Robertson and Haas (1970, p. 138) conjectured that the new rationales and strategies for social studies being suggested by contemporary curriculum developers "will be best implemented by teachers who hold open, accepting, and understanding attitudes."

If a relationship exists between dogmatism (closedmindedness) and willingness to innovate, the extent to which a teacher accepts the rationales of the NSS and his understanding of what the NSS are designed to accomplish may be closely tied to his degree of dogmatism and to his educational philosophy. As the Review of Research will indicate, the relationships among these four variables--dogmatism, philosophy, acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies--have received little attention from researchers.

There are undoubtedly many reasons why this line of research has not been pursued. One reason, as the Review of Research will indicate, may well be that determining whether teachers accept and understand the rationales and strategies of the New Social Studies is difficult because there is little agreement among leaders in the field about what social studies is. There have been many attempts to define the social studies during the past fifty years. In a recent article Barr highlighted the definitional problem when he observed:

> Attempts at defining the field have tended to be awkward or embarrassing because the social studies has been typified by a spate of definitions that have been and continue to be ambiguous, inconsistent, and often contradictory. ... The problem of defining the social studies has not just arisen from an inability or hesitancy of leaders in the profession to articulate an adequate definition; the most troubling situation has grown out of the fact that the profession has staggered under a plethora of competing definitions.(Barr, 1970, p. 752)

It would seem reasonable that if teachers are increasingly being asked to revise their techniques and strategies to accommodate the new objectives of the social studies, curriculum developers should have a clear idea of what they are asking teachers to do, and why. Although beyond the scope of the present study, it is important to know if

vagueness and ambiguity among curriculum developers are factors which are related to understanding and acceptance of the NSS. An examination of this question could provide valuable information and insights for future curriculum work, and could, perhaps, give social studies organizations the tools with which to analyze and implement two position papers, Standards for Social Studies Teachers and Curriculum Guidelines, which were recently adopted by the National Council for the Social Studies (Social Education, December 1971).

The Problem

The present study, however, is restricted to examining the relationships that dogmatism and educational philosophy might have to teacher acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies, as conflicting as definitions of that term may be at this time. Many studies have been concerned with teacher dogmatism, and some studies have identified factors which are related to teachers' educational philosophies. Yet, there have been few studies which correlate dogmatism and educational philosophy. Further, there have been no research studies to date which have attempted to relate teacher dogmatism and educational philosophy to teacher acceptance and understanding of the NSS. This lack of research in an area of potential importance to those working toward a more widespread adoption of the rationales and strategies of the New Social Studies is the central problem with which this study is concerned.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND LITERATURE RELATING TO SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION, DOGMATISM, AND EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY

The concern of this study is the lack of knowledge as to the relationships among dogmatism, educational philosophy, and teacher acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies. In order to study these relationships, one needs to define "New" Social Studies, as well as consider more thoroughly the constructs of dogmatism and educational philosophy.

The first section of this chapter provides an overview of the current controversy over what social studies is as a basis for measuring the perceptions of in-service teachers about the New Social Studies. The views of a representative group of social studies curriculum developers are identified. No attempt is made to judge which position is superior. An effort is made to show that those who hold a particular approach to be superior also make assumptions about the ways teachers should behave, the attitudes they should hold, and the understandings they should have in order to provide more effective instruction in the classroom.

Next, dogmatism and studies relating to teacher dogmatism are discussed. The concern here is that teachers who are more closedminded might be less amenable to the NSS than openminded teachers, and find it more difficult to adapt their approaches to achieve the objectives of the NSS. It may be concluded from some of the studies that teacher behavior is linked with ability to change, and ability to change is linked with the

degree of dogmatism, or closedmindedness, of the teacher. Hundreds of studies have been conducted relating dogmatism to many variables. Some of these are cited in this chapter, but most relate to the current study only tangentially. Only those studies which shed light upon the relationships which might exist between dogmatism and acceptance and understanding of the new approaches to teaching social studies are discussed in detail.

It is hypothesized in this study that there is a correlation between teachers' dogmatism and their educational philosophies. Teachers' philosophies may also be related to their acceptance and understanding of the NSS. Studies relevant to those hypotheses are reviewed in the last section of this chapter. Educational Philosophy is defined so the reader will understand the use, in this study, of a two-dimensional definition, when most educational philosophy books identify four, five, or six dimensions. Finally, scales which have been constructed to measure educational philosophy are discussed and compared as a basis for selecting a measure for this study.

Social Studies Education

The term social studies, much like the term democracy, is difficult to define. Both terms evoke varying feelings and beliefs depending upon differences in individual backgrounds. Engle (1968, p. 43) identified two basically different orientations toward defining social studies. To some, social studies are essentially the social sciences simplified, while to others, social studies is concerned directly with developing the attributes of good citizens. Barth and Shermis, in a more recent article (1970, pp. 743-751), identified what they termed three traditions in social studies education: (1) social studies as citizenship transmission,

(2) social studies as social science, and (3) social studies as reflective inquiry.

Although Barth and Shermis claimed that these are competing positions, Barr (1970, p. 753), in analyzing their model, saw the three positions as being inter-related (Figure 1).

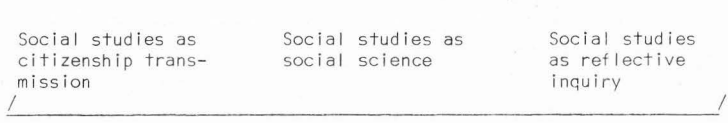

Figure 1. Barth-Shermis continuum according to Barr.

On the left of the continuum, the emphasis is on teaching substantive concepts and on the right, inquiry processes. At the extreme left, "right" values are transmitted along with proper knowledge. Further toward the right along the continuum, indoctrination decreases and emphasis on teaching accurate descriptive information from the academic disciplines increases. Near the center, but still to the left, the emphasis shifts from descriptive information to structural approaches which emphasize substantive concepts. In the middle, the teaching of substantive concepts is joined by the teaching of procedural concepts and a shift toward an inquiry orientation. To the right of center, the goal is to teach specific inquiry skills from the various academic disciplines. Further to the right, the inquiry process changes from inquiry techniques of the disciplines to those of reflective inquiry, aimed at public issues, concepts, and findings from all of the disciplines.

Whether there are two positions as Engle suggested, three as identified by Barth and Shermis, or an inter-relatedness along a continuum

as defined by Barr, is less important to this study than the question of how classroom teachers perceive their roles in teaching the various disciplines. The ambiguities which exist may lead to confusion when social studies teachers use New Social Studies products because some of those who have developed new programs are themselves unclear about what the objectives and rationales of a social studies curriculum ought to be.

Definitions of social studies

A number of definitions and positions are discussed in the following paragraphs. For organizational purposes, they are arranged generally as they fall along the continuum suggested by Barr--that is, from those that perceive the role of the social studies as the teaching of substantive concepts, to those who would use the content of the disciplines to help students become rational decision makers. Preparation of this review turned up no current writers who would only have the social studies transmit "right" values.

Transmission of knowledge approach. Wesley's now classical definition (1958, p. 3) of the social studies as the social sciences simplified and adapted for pedagogical purposes represents the position of many of the scholars in the various disciplines who are responsible for training social studies teachers. The implication is that the task of the teacher is to communicate to his students, in terms they can understand, what the various social scientists, such as historians, sociologists, anthropologists, have uncovered. Gross, in defining the purposes of social studies, said (1968, p. 1296), "... they are those studies that provide understanding of man's way of living, of the basic needs of man, of the activities in which he engages to meet his needs,

and the institutions he has developed." Engle (1968, p. 44) said that definitions such as those cited above imply that "the social studies is a body of predigested and organized knowledge ready to be transmitted to the learner."

For those who subscribe to the above or similar definitions, the student is the consumer of knowledge gathered for him by others. He is not a participant learner, but a passive receiver. Whether that method of teaching is effective for the learner is not examined in this study. However, Eulie (1970, p. 270) suggested that where memory of facts becomes the end of instruction "students either do not see purposeful goals or they are unaware of making any real progress toward meaningful ends." It should be noted that in the past decade, the emphasis on teaching factual knowledge has given way somewhat to the inductive, discovery, and problem-solving teaching strategies. This is particularly true for teachers who have been retrained, or have received pre-service training at colleges and universities which have kept current with the latest trends, according to Beyer (1967, p. 199). He contended that the content of social sciences is being increasingly viewed as a vehicle through which instructional goals can be attained rather than as the prime objective of instruction.

Social studies as social science. It is generally acknowledged that the "revolution" in the social studies described by Fenton (1967, pp. 1-5) began with the publication of Bruner's (1961) The Process of Education. Fenton described five areas of reform in the social studies: objectives and evaluation, teaching strategies, materials, pupil deployment, and teacher preparation (1967, p. 5). Smith and Cox reported (1969, p. 41)

that it was virtually impossible to find a significant statement about curriculum development written since 1961 that did not in some way draw upon one or more of the ideas mentioned in Bruner's book. Fenton (1966, p. 81) believed that The Process of Education might eventually prove to be the most influential volume ever written about curriculum development. Bruner contended (1961, p. 120) that "the structure of knowledge--its interconnectedness and its derivations that make one idea follow another--is the proper emphasis in education."

Bruner convinced many social scientists that they should develop courses which do not simply transmit to the students what the scholars have learned, but which have the students learn the unique structures of the various disciplines. For example, much of Fenton's work has been based on Bruner's belief that learning is not simply mastering a set of scholarly conclusions, but that learning comes from confronting the raw data with which the scholar works and asking questions of such data to draw appropriate conclusions (McElroy & Templeton, 1969, p. 105).

Fenton and Good (1965, pp. 206-208), in a report on the various USOE projects making up Project Social Studies at the mid 1960's, said a major approach taken by most project directors had been to center their development work on the identification of the structure of the social science disciplines. "In the courses being designed, students would organize knowledge as historians, geographers, political scientists, economists, anthropologists, sociologists, and psychologists organize it." Later, Fenton was able to report:

> Most of the new curriculum projects have adopted the structure of the disciplines as the major criterion for the selection of content in the social studies. The directors of several

> projects are devoting all of their time to the identification of structure. (Fenton, 1966, p. 81)

Social studies as reflective inquiry. There is a fundamental pedagogical controversy over how the disciplines are to be presented to the students. A strong emphasis on developing curricula which focus upon a single discipline is evident in most of the New Social Studies projects, although some, such as the Harvard Project, the Utah State University Analysis of Public Issues Project, and the Minnesota Project Social Studies claim to be interdisciplinary, and focus upon reflective inquiry.

Smith and Cox (1969, pp. 130-150), described 11 major curriculum projects financed by USOE, other federal agencies, or private foundations. Of the 11 described, seven represented specific courses or disciplines in history and the social sciences. Sanders and Tanck (1970, pp. 383-449) appraised 26 national social studies projects. They listed 13 as discipline-oriented, six as comprehensive projects, three as area-oriented, and four as special purpose projects. Significantly, one-half of the projects they reviewed were built around the structures of single disciplines, which extended Fenton's 1966 findings that many project directors were devoting their time to identifying the structure of their disciplines.

Following are brief descriptions of representative "New Social Studies" projects arranged in three categories; structure of the single discipline, interdisciplinary, and reflective inquiry.

Descriptions of social studies projects

Structure of the single discipline approach. Representative of the single discipline approach are the following projects:

The Committee on the Study of History, directed by Richard Brown, (Newberry Library, Chicago), consists of units which provide the student with the raw materials with which scholars work rather than with their conclusions. Thirteen units were scheduled to be published by late 1970. Six titles were available when Sanders and Tanck evaluated the project. They found wide variety in the complexity of both problems and units. Of the simplest unit, Sanders and Tanck said it is "... a long way from being suitable for slow learners, but motivated average students could understand much of it." (Sanders & Tanck, 1970, p. 416)

Brown said, speaking about the project:

> We think that genuine learning in the field of history means more than the playing of a game with a student, more than simply affording him clues designed to move him ineluctibly to the foreordained conclusion of the curriculum designer. We want our students to do more than construct sets and models of data, more than merely to master the tools of inquiry. We want them to discover things in the raw data of history that we did not know were there, to think thoughts that had not occurred to us, to go outside the materials we give them to other materials, to their own experiences, to life itself. (Brown, 1967, p. 586)

Brown speaks eloquently of the objectives he and his staff have set.

Yet, there is a question about whether the project is suitable for a majority of high school students. Sanders and Tanck, in their evaluation of the project further stated:

> The paradox of this project is that it is history as teachers wish it could be taught rather than as it can be taught in anything like an average classroom situation. (Sanders and Tanck, 1970, p. 417)

Basic Concepts in History and the Social Sciences, another history project funded by USOE in 1964 for the purpose of improving instruction in American history in secondary schools, is directed by Edwin Rozwenc

and consists of 12 paperback booklets which are designed to have students study the process of interpreting history. Sanders and Tanck reported:

> The project appears practical for a small minority of students because of the scholarly nature of the problems and the difficulty of considerable portions of reading even when it was selected partly for reading ability. (Sanders and Tanck, 1970, p. 416)

What educational ends are served, in light of Sanders and Tanck's belief that the materials are too difficult for most students to work with effectively, are confounded by the Project Committee's expressed view that to comprehend history, students must understand the processes of historical reconstruction and interpretation. (Joyce, 1972, p. 93) Sanders and Tanck (1970, p. 415) concluded that the project does not have the students perform historical interpretation in the manner of historians because they (the students) must eventually agree with one historian or another rather than construct their own interpretations.

The Anthropology Curriculum Project (University of Georgia) has been carried on under the direction of Marion Rice, and is designed to introduce students in grades one through seven to the organizing concepts of anthropology. According to the Anthropology Curriculum Project teacher's guide (1965, pp. 1-2), the following objectives are among those which are implemented:

1. To gain some insight into the way an anthropologist studies people.
2. To obtain a general idea of the concept of culture.
3. To learn that culture is universal.
4. To acquire an idea of how cultures change and grow.

An assumption of the project is that elementary teachers have little background in anthropology, and a great proportion of the published material is designed for teachers' education in anthropology (Sanders & Tanck, 1970, p. 409). The concepts are taught in such a way that the methods by which they were arrived become apparent: the student sees how the ideas he is being taught were first generated and are constantly being tested (Joyce, 1972, p. 85).

The Anthropology Curriculum Study Project (University of Chicago), is under the direction of Malcolm Collier and is sponsored by the American Anthropological Association. The project has a dual thrust: to get anthropology into the secondary school curriculum and to help students understand the anthropologists' analytical concepts that could be useful in the analysis of social data. Collier, in stating the general objectives of the project said:

> ... hypotheses must be reformulated because the observers grow in ability to see, to analyze, and to hypothesize. That is what the social sciences have in common--a series of dynamic, self-developing ways of looking at men and activities. (Collier, 1965, p. 555)

The project has many strengths according to Sanders and Tanck, who reported that the authors claim that experience in the classroom demonstrate that slower, less able students respond to it as well as bright students. However, according to the fall 1969 issue of the Anthropology Curriculum Study Project Newsletter, only about sixty percent of the students are able to understand and utilize the concepts built into the course. Poor readers have considerable difficulty with much of the narrative. (Sanders & Tanck, 1970, p. 414)

Two economics courses, one for ninth graders and the other for high school seniors, have been developed. Both courses utilize major

concepts of economics, and neither takes the student beyond the single discipline.

Development of Economics Curricular Materials for Secondary Schools (Ohio State University), directed by Meno Lovenstein and funded by USOE. This project was designed as a one-semester course for the ninth grade level. Lovenstein and his associates developed a rationale for economics instruction wherein they viewed economics as a system of concepts and integral patterns of reasoning by which the concepts were derived and interrelated. Eighteen units had been completed by late 1970. The course emphasizes macro-economics and economic analysis rather than business economics. The course is divided into three major sections, each dealing with a central idea: (1) Scarcity; (2) flows of goods and services and money; and (3) coordination of economic activity. According to Sanders and Tanck (1970, p. 420), project evaluators concluded that the course was appropriate for ninth graders, but that student achievement did not approach higher level project objectives.

Econ 12 (San Jose State College) was developed at the Economic Education Center at San Jose State College under the direction of Suzanne Wiggins Helburn and John Sperling. The project was funded by USOE and the Joint Council on Economic Education. A goal of the developers was to design a course suitable for over 60 percent of high school seniors with no prior formal study of economics and appropriate to teachers with no special training in economics. Yet, one of the project directors suggested Econ 12 might also be appropriate as a college level introduction to economics (Sanders & Tanck, 1970, p. 422). That statement seems inconsistent with the goal of reaching 60 percent of high school

seniors. Despite the attempt to develop an economics course that could be effectively taught by people with little or no background in the discipline, Sanders and Tanck, in their evaluation of the project, recognized that:

> Teachers will need to understand the rationale, the two problem-solving methods, systems analysis and conflict analysis and the function of materials to use the course effectively. The project is developing a teacher's guide which provides an introduction to the procedures and rationales of the course. The guide also includes unit objectives and summary charts of instructional activities (Sanders & Tanck, 1970, p. 421).

The High School Geography Project (University of Colorado) was initiated by the American Association of Geographers and the National Council for Geographic Education to improve the quality and quantity of geography education in the schools. It was financed originally in 1961 by the Ford Foundation and later by the National Science Foundation. As with Econ 12, the course is designed to be taught by persons with very little formal instruction in geography. But Sanders and Tanck (1970, p. 426) suggest that the teacher should devote at least a month during the summer reviewing the materials before attempting to present the course.

Although the developers envision the course as a geography offering in the secondary schools, Sanders and Tanck (1970, p. 426) believe it could easily be construed as a required, interdisciplinary culmination to social studies in the twelfth grade. They might be using the term "interdisciplinary" incorrectly. Obviously, certain concepts and generalizations identified with a particular discipline may be used to illustrate and reinforce concepts from another discipline. This "borrowing" does not make a course interdisciplinary. If all of the materials for a course are keyed to the development of the concepts and generalizations

dealt with primarily by economists, geographers, historians, or political scientists, the course must be, by definition, single discipline in orientation.

Sociological Resources for Secondary Schools (SRSS), directed by Robert Angell, was sponsored by the American Sociological Association and funded by the National Science Foundation to:

> Develop instructional materials of high quality that will accurately reflect the character of sociology as a scientific discipline and that will be suitable for use in secondary courses in sociology, history, problems of democracy, and other subjects. (Smith & Cox, 1969, pp. 140-141)

Approximately forty separate short units, called "episodes," have been developed which involve students in sociological inquiry. Each episode requires no more than two weeks of class time and they are independent and not sequential. That is, certain episodes may be selected for use in government classes, while others could be built into ethnic studies, history, and sociology courses.

The episodes have been written by teams of sociologists and social studies teachers, who field tested and revised the episodes prior to dissemination. Each episode is designed to present sociology as a method for seeking answers to questions about social phenomena but, according to Sanders and Tanck (1970, p. 434), "make it clear that many of the questions cannot be answered clearly and finally." Sanders and Tanck believe that although teachers should be able to handle the episodes well using the instructors' guides, they will either have to use some of the activities for evaluation, as SRSS suggests, or develop their own means of evaluation. (Sanders & Tanck, 1970, p. 434)

Two major projects may be noticeable by their absence: A High School Social Studies Curriculum for Able Students, Carnegie-Mellon University,

directed by Edwin Fenton, and the High School Curriculum Center in Government, Indiana University, directed by Howard Mehlinger. Both of the projects fall into the single discipline category. Fenton's project accepted Bruner's hypothesis that students learned best through discovery and could learn social science concepts if they were taught with the structure of discipline. Fenton's focus was on the discipline of history, and his early materials were not only inquiry-centered, but obviously intended for bright, able students. A shift to concern for a broader range of students has been evident in his more recent works (The Americans, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1971).

Mehlinger's project deals with political science, in particular the study of political behavior rather than a description of government. The project has been completed and a text, American Political Behavior (Ginn and Company, 1972), geared for ninth grade students, has been marketed. The emphasis on concepts of political behavior and systems, such as socialization and role, rather than on concepts of governmental organization, make the project somewhat difficult to classify along the continuum discussed earlier, although on the surface it is clearly a single discipline project.

Each of the projects described above is built around the structure of a single discipline. And although they employ inquiry strategies, the materials with which students are asked to work are taken from the findings developed by scholars in the particular disciplines. An important objective of each project is to train the student to operate in the mode of the disciplinarian. Engle has said about these and similar single discipline projects:

> Most of the projects which have come to receive the descriptive term of the "new social studies" are primarily concerned with updating and improving the teaching of the social sciences. Almost none of these funded projects have been concerned with improving the comprehensive education of citizens ... . The deceptiveness lies not only in the narrow treatment of the social studies but in the failure to distinguish between social science teaching and social science research. (Engle, 1970, p. 788)

Engle's charge that few of the projects have dealt with improving the comprehensive education of citizens is supported by Shaver and Oliver (1968, p. 309) who have been concerned that the structure of the disciplines approach, utilized by most of the social studies project developers, is inadequate alone to the task of providing citizenship education. They raise serious "questions about the extent to which the 'layman' can transfer the social scientist's concepts and find them useful in the dialogue concerning public issues." (Shaver & Oliver, 1968, p. 319)

Support for the claims made by Engle, Shaver, and Oliver comes from Fenton and Good (1965, p. 206), who, after evaluating many of the materials being developed at that time, observed that project directors were designing curriculum packages to help students learn how particular disciplines are organized. Few of them attempt to prepare students to analyze or otherwise come to grips with the important issues which plague society.

A major criticism of traditional social studies curricula was that students were required to "learn" a body of data, conclusions reached by scholars and recorded in textbooks. This approach left students little room to question. With the "new" design, students are expected to learn how a discipline is structured and should, therefore, be able to ask questions of the data and arrive at conclusions which have meaning for them.

But, it has been charged (Engle, 1970, p. 778), neither the data nor the conclusions move students much closer to an understanding of the issues with which they must deal to become informed, intelligent citizens.

Johns (1970, p. 205) agreeing with Engle, indicated that teaching the structure of the social sciences would not help students come to grips with the value conflicts which underlie personal and social problems. Eulie (1970, p. 270) claimed that empirical, descriptive studies can only describe what is but cannot prescribe what ought to be. Eulie also charged (1970, p. 270) that because the structures of the disciplines are treated in a descriptive manner, social studies "has been particularly guilty of being irrelevant--there is a lack of contact with the real world."

Although it is probably a general objective of all social studies curriculum developers to help prepare students to become better informed citizens, it is becoming increasingly apparent that no single discipline holds the key to unlocking or revealing to students "answers" to the myriad issues with which they must cope if they hope to maintain a stable society.

Some curriculum developers, who believe that the structure and findings of a single discipline cannot help students deal with important issues with the depth and scope necessary for them to make ethical, rational decisions, believe all the social sciences should be employed. These curriculum developers want to make it possible for students to use whatever concepts and generalizations are deemed to be important focal points by scholars in the various disciplines. This approach is often labelled "interdisciplinary."

The interdisciplinary approach. One significant interdisciplinary program, emphasizing economics concepts beginning with elementary children and proceeding through grade 12, is Experiment in Economic Education (Purdue University), under the direction of Lawrence Senesh. The materials for grades 1 through 3 were developed and tested with the help of Elkhart and West Lafayette, Indiana public school teachers, and the project is sometimes referred to as the Elkhart Project. Recently, Senesh has relocated at the University of Colorado at Boulder where materials for the upper grades are being developed. Senesh and his associates have identified problem areas or topics and approached their study in an interdisciplinary manner.

As the student progresses through the program by grade levels, different concepts are emphasized. Senesh reported (1967, p. 1), "This means that the fundamental ideas of the various social science disciplines are taught at every grade level with increasing depth and complexity." The student is asked to examine questions such as: "What is produced?" "How?" "What gives it value?" "Who makes the decision to produce something?" "What relative values are assigned to various goods?" "How is value determined?"

In what he calls the "orchestration" of the social science curriculum (Senesh, 1969, p. 49), the concepts of economics are viewed from anthropoligical, political science, and sociological points of view to illustrate and help the student to better understand the problem under examination. The analytical tools of one of the social sciences play the dominant role while a particular problem is under investigation, while the tools of other disciplines play supporting roles.

Metcalf supported Senesh's rationale which calls upon several disciplines to more fully examine issues, when he contended (1962, p. 20) that students could not grow in their understanding of social phenomenon if they were taught facts out of all relationship to concepts or generalizations. Metcalf believed that although students might learn about what happened from an examination of the findings of a single discipline, they cannot learn why anything happened.

Another interdisciplinary social studies project director apparently agreed with Metcalf, and designed a program that dealt with both the what and the why of social phenomena.

The Minnesota Social Studies Project (University of Minnesota) was funded by USOE from 1963 to 1968. Directed by Edith West, the project developed a comprehensive, sequential K-12 social studies curriculum to teach concepts, generalizations, skills, and attitudes (Sanders & Tanck, 1970, p. 402). The Project staff agreed that the social sciences need not (in fact, should not) be taught separately. Because all the social sciences study social reality, from different perspectives, the curriculum should be organized around important social topics and the appropriate social sciences brought to bear on them. In this regard, Senesh and West agree; the major difference in the two projects is that one emphasizes economic topics while the other concentrates on social issues.

Agreeing with Senesh and Metcalf, West said:

> It should be noted that problems within any society are not neatly separated into political, economic, and social problems ... . The study of societal problems therefore, requires interdisciplinary efforts. (West, n.d., pp. 14-15)

In their evaluation of the Project, Sanders and Tanck clearly showed the difference in orientation between the Minnesota Project and other

projects previously described. They reported:

> The program emphasizes inquiry as a teaching strategy, but also uses other strategies. Inquiry is defined as a strategy requiring students to set up and test hypotheses and often is accomplished as teacher-led discussion. It is used to promote interest and to teach concepts, generalizations, and inquiry skills. The Center staff realisitically recognized that inquiry strategies may not be efficient or useful for some goals, like teaching basic terminology or developing skills, and that inquiry and exposition strategies are often mixed, as when an expository reading is used to present information useful to test a hypothesis ... . A variety of approaches is used to foster attitudes like skepticism of single causation and valuing human dignity. (Sanders & Tanck, 1970, p. 402)

In her analysis of the social sciences, West (n.d., Background Paper #3), distinguished between concepts (categories or classifications), generalizations (relationships between concepts), and theories (explanations of relationships between phenomena). According to West, the more complex concepts are most important, but they must be built in the early years from less important ones. Examining the concepts to be presented could serve as guides to the organization of the curriculum.

It has been agreed (Fenton, 1966, 1967a, 1967c; Fenton & Good, 1965; Fraser, 1967; Sanders & Tanck, 1970) that most of the projects, whether single or interdisciplinary in design, are built around the structure, including the empirical problem orientation, of the social sciences. However, Newmann seriously questions whether the social science disciplines have a legitimate place in education. He asks:

> Why should children be taught to ask and answer the kinds of questions that interest historians, political scientists, economists, psychologists, etc.? We begin to sense that social science training offers no more than vocational training for success in college or the academic professions. Basing one's curriculum on social science disciplines is an unnecessarily restrictive approach to education in two senses: (a) the type of inquiry engaged in is largely descriptive (as opposed to prescriptive), (b) it ignores the educational value of 'non-disciplined' experience. (Newmann, 1967, p. 595)

In their book for secondary social studies teachers, Hunt and Metcalf (1955, p. 3) urged teachers to open the curriculum, rather than restrict it, when they flatly stated,"The foremost aim of instruction in high school social studies is to help students examine reflectively issues in closed areas of American culture." Closed areas are controversial areas, and one reason they are controversial is because they present value conflicts. Agreeing with Metcalf, Newmann asked "Why teach social science at all?" (Newmann, 1967, p. 594) Representing a middle position, Bellack stated:

> To focus exclusive attention on one or two aspects of the social world as seen through the eyes of one or two of the social sciences, is to give students a nyopic vision of man's social behavior and institutions. (Bellack, 1963, p. 103)

Shaver does not want to abandon the social science disciplines, but he does say:

> There is ... no intrinsic reason why social science concepts must be taught as part of the structure of a discipline instead of being taught as they are relevant to understanding specific issues facing the society. (Shaver, 1967, p. 589)

The fundamental issue is whether social science disciplinarians will continue to determine the structure and content to which students will be exposed, or whether public issues, of concern to the student and his society, will determine how he utilizes the concepts and qeneralizations of various disciplines. A few contemporary curriculum developers take the latter position. On the Barth-Shermis continuum as defined by Barr, that position is defined as social studies as reflective incuiry.

Social Studies as Reflective Inquiry (utilizing an interdisciplinary approach). The first project of the USOE-sponsored Project Social Studies to deal with controversial issues was the Harvard Social Studies Project

(Oliver & Shaver, 1963, 1966) developed by Donald Oliver, James P. Shaver, and Fred Newmann. Fraser stated their objectives in these terms:

> The most broadly stated objective is to train students to examine and analyze, through discussion and argument, the kinds of disputes that give birth to social conflict. By considering a variety of situations throughout history and across cultures, by varying the situations in terms of various social science concepts and theories, and by examining and weighing various methods of reaching and justifying positions, students will hopefully gain certain powers of analysis that will aid them in discussing value dilemmas on which public controversy thrives. (Fraser, 1965, p. 425)

The study of public controversies that involve basic conflicts in values requires an intelligent, thoughtful analysis of the apparent and implicit issues involved. (Krug, 1967, p. 423) Oliver has listed three major objectives of the public controversies curriculum. First, students should be taught to recognize and define areas of human conflict. Second, students should be taught to define alternative methods of regulating human affairs that are possible from the point of view of major value positions in a society. Third, students should be taught to make thoughtful predictions about the consequences of the various alternative methods of regulating human affairs. The general objective of social studies education, according to Oliver (1966, p. 107), is to "introduce young people into the fire and controversy that rage within a free society ... ." Agreeing with Oliver, Newmann (1965, p. 423) stated, "... The best way to approach the resolution of social controversy is through rational discussions."

About the Harvard Project, Sanders and Tanck said:

> Students are urged to judge their discussions on two levels: one in terms of the quality of the discussion. The issues in a discussion are "moral or value issues," "issues of definition," "issues of fact and explanation," "legal issues," or "frame of reference issues." Many examples are given of discussions which students are to classify under one or more headings. (Sanders & Tanck, 1970, p. 441)

There are approximately fifteen problem booklets (AEP Public Issues Series) which grew out of the Harvard Project. They could be incorporated into almost any secondary school course. The lessons are aimed at average ability high school students, and the case study approach, describing real and fictional characters, has human interest appeal. (Sanders & Tanck, 1970, p. 439)

One project which illustrates not only the elements of controversial issues but provides a model for conducting rational discussions about those issues is the Analysis of Public Issues Curriculum (API) (Utah State University). The project was financed by a grant from USOE and developed by James P. Shaver and A. Guy Larkins (1968). The overriding assumption in that design was that social studies is "that part of the general education program which is concerned with the preparation of citizens for participation in a democratic society." (Shaver, 1967, p. 589) Once that definition is accepted, Shaver (1969, p. 5) said, "Curriculum mandates can no longer come directly from the scholar attuned to his own discipline, but must be based on a consideration of the nature of the society which general education is to serve."

As radical as that statement might appear, it should not be assumed that social studies educators such as Oliver, Shaver, Newmann, and Larkins are advocating a totally new approach. Rather, they believe, as do most curriculum developers, that students must be trained to become rational decisionmakers, able to deal logically and consistently with controversial issues, "the closed areas of our society," and this important objective will be difficult to reach unless the curriculum is "opened up" to include the concepts and constructs of all of the disciplines.

Their emphasis is toward ethical decisionmaking and away from mere exposition and cataloguing of issues, which often leaves the student frustrated and disillusioned.

API (Shaver & Larkins, 1973a, 1973b) is built around the definition and analysis of six major clusters of concepts: (1) Public Issues as Ethical Issues, (2) The Need for Order, (3) The Nature and Importance of Language, (4) Arguments over Words, (5) Disagreements over Facts, and (6) Disagreement over Values. API crosses, and, in fact, integrates the processes of many social science disciplines including sociology, anthropology, political science, history, social psychology, and analytic ethics. It is not confined to specific discipline processes. Rather, processes for integrating disciplines are developed, demonstrated, and applied. The content is drawn from various disciplines, the process consistently employed is that of defining, analyzing, and coming to terms with public issues in such a way that the emotion often engendered by controversial topics may be held to a minimum so that investigation will more likely produce accord and rational decisions. By accord is meant general agreement that the issue under discussion is legitimately a public issue and that there are powerful arguments pro and con which must be expanded in light of best available evidence.

The following statement of purpose was taken from the introduction of the teacher's manual for API materials.

> The project to develop the ANALYSIS OF PUBLIC ISSUES (API) materials began from the assumption that in order to select appropriate skills of thinking to be taught one must specify what it is that students are to think about. The API materials are based on the premise that the central focus of teaching for thinking in the social studies should be the analysis of public issues.

> Few of the models of critical or reflective thinking available to teachers have been focused on public issues. Reviewers have found that the schemes of critical thinking (if any) presented in methods textbooks for social studies teachers or that underlie chapters on "problem solving" in social studies textbooks focus almost exclusively on propaganda analysis and/or simple notions of scientific method.
>
> The API materials are focused on public issues and are based on the assumption that public issues are basically ethical issues--that is, they involve questions about right or proper aims and actions. Propaganda analysis warns us to watch for the emotional impact of words and to examine carefully some types of assumptions that make persuasive messages powerful. Scientific method is important in establishing factual claims--for example, when we want to determine what the present state of affairs is and what led to it, or when we have decided what ends are desirable and want to know what consequences might follow different courses of action. But neither propaganda analysis or scientific method can tell us what ends we ought to support with our laws and actions. This depends on the values we hold, and on choosing between conflicting values--such as equality and property rights in the case of much racial controversy. The API materials make value clarification and analysis a central part of the curriculum. (Shaver & Larkins, 1973b)

The work of the project has been based on some other basic assumptions. First, that public issues are ethical issues, in that they involve questions about right or proper aims and actions. Secondly, that although methods of inquiry of the social scientist can be helpful in ethical analysis, they do not provide a sufficient base for teaching critical thinking in the social studies curriculum.

Throughout the API curriculum students and teachers are forced to deal with value conflict, and a major task is to resolve those personal conflicts which have been discovered or uncovered so that decisions can be made. It is much more defensible educationally to generate value conflict than to ignore it. There is a clear relationship between disciplined knowledge on the one hand and the tasks of teaching and learning on the other, and the interrelations between the

fields of knowledge with the curriculum as a whole. The designers of the API saw the relationships, and constructed materials and rationales so that the relationships are not only obvious, but must not be treated separately.

Summary

There has been a great deal of activity in the area of social studies curriculum development over the past 15 years. Following the publication of Bruner's The Process of Education in 1961, the social scientists involved in curriculum development emphasized teaching students the processes of the social science disciplines rather than merely the products of social scientists' research. This movement was claimed by many (Fenton, 1967; Fraser, 1969; Joyce, 1972; Krug, Foster, & Gillies, 1970; Massialas & Cox, 1966) as a major breakthrough in social studies education for two important reasons: (1) The students would no longer be passive listeners, but, instead would be active learners, and (2) students would now be dealing with "legitimate" content.

The hope was, that if students could learn how the historian, sociologist, anthropologist, and other disciplinarians went about gathering,analyzing, testing and applying their data, they would be better equipped to solve problems that arise in a rapidly changing society, and not be saddled with learning previously found information which might be irrelevant to present or future situations.

Most of the projects developed over the past 15 years have been designed around the structure of a single social science discipline. A stated or implied goal is to train students to become competent researchers and data analyzers. However, most of the project directors themselves have been social science scholars who wished to enhance the position

of their particular disciplines in the elementary and secondary schools. And although materials have often been presented in such a way that the students must "discover" how to apply the concepts of the disciplines, the concepts are primarily descriptive rather than prescriptive in nature.

A few curriculum leaders viewed social studies education as the vehicle for analyzing controversial issues and training students to become effective decisionmakers as fully participating citizens in a democratic society. To these leaders, the structure of the disciplines was important, but they also believed that social scientists, with their highly developed techniques for verifying knowledge, take too parochial a view of the problem formation and solution.

Shaver identified the thrust of most of the New Social Studies projects when he observed:

> Despite the use of the term "the new social studies" little is likely to come from these projects that will be helpful to a teacher wishing to depart from the present history-social science dominated curriculum. Not only are the projects social science based, but the academicians directing the projects are too often "scholacentric" in that they genuinely love their schools of thought and are centered on them. They find it difficult to admit the importance of other fields of study, the necessity of justifying study of their own field, or the possibility of alternative orderings of concepts from their own disciplines. (Shaver, 1967, p. 590)

Because of the amount of activity in the field generated by Project Social Studies and the numerous summer institutes held across the nation over the past eight years, it must be assumed that teachers and curriculum coordinators hear much about "the New Social Studies." Depending upon sources they have read, or materials they have worked with, teachers believe the New Social Studies to be highly structured training in a particular discipline; examination of political, social,

and economic phenomena using a variety of social science concepts; the discussion of social issues, employing modes of inquiry appropriate to a particular discipline, or the analysis of controversial issues from an ethical viewpoint, using data and concepts from all the disciplines.

How teachers and curriculum developers view the cognitive and affective results of the NSS, the perceptions they hold about the rationales and strategies being marketed, has helped to create and maintain a lack of clear-cut direction for them to follow. Schneider recognized that teachers often fail to understand that their students possess frames of reference and perceptions about what is going on in the classroom which differ greatly from their own. She warned:

> Unless the relevance of what students are expected to learn is made explicitly clear to them ... any learning will be compartmentalized and have little transfer value to non-school experience. Yet the ferment in social studies education seems hardly to have resulted in a resolution of the problem. (Schneider, 1969, p. 271)

This section of the review has attempted to survey the different approaches to the development and implementation of a social studies curriculum, and to show that there is a wide range of attitudes and beliefs about what the social studies is, among teachers and curriculum developers alike.

Dogmatism

In this section, the construct of closedmindedness is discussed. Studies relevant to factors which might enhance and inhibit the ability of teachers to change attitudes and methods are reviewed, all pointing to the possibility that one's degree of dogmatism may be related to his lack of understanding and acceptance of the New Social Studies rationales.

The question of concern is whether the closedminded person is less likely to accept and understand the rationales and strategies of the NSS than is his more openminded colleague.

Frymier came very close to identifying the problem dealt with in this study. He wondered not whether teachers will change, but whether they can change. Frymier contended that change is psychologically impossible in some teachers' minds:

> New concepts, techniques, and media are only useful to those who are psychologically capable of perceiving the proposed educational changes. If the teachers are defensive, closed, inadequate, and fearful, they will not be able to get the new idea "inside" their central nervous systems to give it new meaning for them. Unless they can do this, the innovation can only be utilized mechanically and unthinkingly, or not at all. (Frymier, 1969, p. 4)

The closedminded teacher might be unable to accept and understand the NSS rationales because they call for the rejection of safe old truths, the examination of ideas, and the use of truth-testing concepts--including probability and tentativity.

The Authoritarian Personality

Before and since the publication of The Authoritarian Personality (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswick, Levinson, & Sanford, 1950), many studies have attempted to describe the personality structure and dynamics of individuals who have been characterized as "dogmatic," "rigid," or "authoritarian." The authoritarian personality (Adorno, et al., 1950, pp. 248-250) was described as adhering rigidly to conventional middle-class values; as having a submissive, uncritical attitude toward idealized moral authorities of the ingroup; as tending to be on the outlook for, and to condemn, reject, and punish people who violate conventional values; as being

opposed to the subjective, the imaginative, and the tenderminded; as believing in mystical determinants of the individual's fate; as having the disposition to think in rigid categories; as being preoccupied with the dominance-submission, strong-weak, leader-follower dimension; as having generalized hostility; and as being disposed to believe that wild and dangerous things go on in the world.

Christie and Cook (1958, pp. 171-199) compiled a guide to research using the authoritarian personality construct through 1956. Discounting dissertations and theses, some 230 articles had been generated in less than six years. Christie and Cook concluded (1958, p. 171) that "few recent works in the social sciences have had an impact upon professional and lay audiences comparable to that of The Authoritarian Personality."

The research of Adorno and his associates began in 1943 as a study of anti-Semitism. Levinson and Sanford, involved in that research, devised an anti-Semitism scale in 1944, and they discovered that those who scored high (anti-semitic) on that scale tended to score high on scales measuring attitudes toward other minority groups. As a result of that discovery, Adorno and his colleagues constructed the F Scale (Fascist Scale), designed to measure underlying personality predispositions toward a fascistic outlook on life. It was to be used as an indirect measure of prejudice without mentioning the names of any specific minority groups. (Rokeach, 1960, p. 12)

Titus and Hollander (1957, pp. 47-64) reported that the F Scale had been used in studies of prejudice, leadership, rigidity, adjustment, and group behavior, among others. From their survey of 64 studies (1957, p. 61), they found that the F Scale correlated with intelligence,

xenophobia, family ideology, anxiety, and many other variables. Intelligence and educational level related negatively to the scale, indicating that a general intelligence factor might account for many of the correlations with other variables. (Titus & Hollander, 1957, p. 62)

In addition to the F Scale and authoritarianism surveys of Titus and Hollander and Christie and Cook, Shaver and Richards (1968) and Low and Shaver (1971) discussed authoritarianism studies after 1956. Rokeach (1960) provided an extensive discussion of the development of the F Scale and of related research of Adorno and his colleaques.

Development of the Dogmatism Scale

Although the F Scale had been widely used in research as a description of general authoritarianism, Rokeach (1954, 1960) along with others (Fruchter, Rokeach, & Novak, 1958; Rokeach & Fruchter, 1956; Shil, 1954) believed that the scale was a measure of authoritarianism and intolerance of the political right. Rokeach developed the Dogmatism Scale (D Scale) which he claimed is a measure not only of general authoritarianism and general intolerance, but also of the "open-closedness of cognitive systems." (Zagona & Zurcher, 1964, p. 256)

Barker (1963) in his study of authoritarianism of the political right, center, and left, found that the F Scale measured rightist authoritarianism primarily, general authoritarianism somewhat, and left authoritarianism not at all. (Barker, 1963, p. 74)

Rokeach's notion that dogmatism could be a factor in the personalities of people on both the right and left extremes of the political spectrum (Fruchter, Rokeach, & Novak, 1958; Rokeach & Fruchter, 1956) was tested

by Plant (1960, p. 164). Plant administered the F Scale, the D Scale, and the E Scale (ethnocentrism scale) to 2350 California college freshmen. His data supported Rokeach's contention that the D Scale is a better measure of general authoritarianism of both the left and right than the F Scale.

Hanson (1968) also tested Rokeach's hypothesis that the D Scale taps general authoritarianism, whereas the F Scale taps only right authoritarianism. Hanson administered the D and F Scales to 301 university students, and found that there was no significant difference in dogmatism between authoritarians (A's) and non-authoritarians (N's). A's responses to certain problem sets were more highly correlated with dogmatism than were N's, regardless of the response (categorical or qualified). Hanson's data supported Rokeach's hypothesis that the D Scale taps general authoritarianism, but tended to negate the suggestion that A's and N's are equally dogmatic, as did Barker, who found N's tended to cluster around the political left and center, while A's were grouped more to the political right.

Dogmatism defined

In defining dogmatism, Rokeach (1954, p. 195) hypothesized that man's intellectual system is organized into two parts; a belief system made up of beliefs he accepts and a disbelief system made up of beliefs he rejects. The belief system is defined to include all beliefs, sets, hypotheses, or expectations that a person at a given time accepts as true of the world in which he lives. The disbelief system is made up of a series of sub-systems which contain all the beliefs, sets, and expectancies that a person at a given time rejects as false. (Rokeach, 1960, p. 33) The

dogmatic (closedminded) person is one who: (1) accentuates the differences between his belief and disbelief systems, (2) denies evidence that is contrary to his belief systems, (3) allows contraditions to exist within his own belief systems, and (4) disregards as irrelevant similarities between his belief and disbelief systems. (Sears, 1967, p. 46)

Rokeach defined dogmatism succinctly as:

> (a) a relatively closed cognitive system of beliefs and disbeliefs about reality, (b) organized around a central set of beliefs about absolute authority which, in turn, (c) provides a framework for patterns of intolerance and qualified tolerance toward others. (Rokeach, 1954, p. 203)

He assumed a dynamic relationship between the way a person thinks and his personality structure. "Thus," he said (Rokeach, 1960, pp. 69-70), "the more closed the belief-disbelief system, the more we conceive it to represent, in its totality, a tightly woven network of cognitive defense mechanisms organized together to form a cognitive system and designed to shield the vulnerable mind."

Research employing the dogmatism scale

Rokeach's research has indicated that persons scoring high in dogmatism show a lack of integrative or synthesizing thinking, reject relevant information in problem solving, remain loyal to a belief system longer, and are more authoritarian than subjects who score low on the scale.

During the past 15 years, countless other studies of dogmatism have been conducted. In most cases, the investigators studied the extent to which dogmatism, or closedmindedness, was related to other variables. Vacchiano (1969, pp. 261-273), reviewed the field and listed a number of studies dealing with personality, interpersonal and group behavior,

adjustment, perception, cognitive inconsistency, learning, teaching, and rigidity, among others.

The Shaver and Richards (1968) review of dogmatism studies included the variables of sex, intelligence, geographic location, religion, teacher education, attitudes toward children, thinking, education methods courses, and learning. Low and Shaver (1971) reviewed and discussed dogmatism in relation to age, sex, religion, education, college majors, and teacher education. Ehrlich and Lee (1969) reviewed the research dealing with the effects of dogmatism on belief acquisition and learning.

Most of these reports have little relevance for this study. Of concern are those studies which specifically or generally deal with the relation of open- or closed-mindedness to teachers' ability to accept curricula which emphasize social science methodology, inquiry, and the analysis of public issues.

In his 1960 study which related dogmatism to critical thinking skills, Kemp found that low dogmatics (LD) scored higher on the Watson-Glasser Critical Thinking Appraisal than high dogmatics (HD). HD's had the greatest percentage of errors in those problems which required the study of several factors or criteria for decisions. HD's also had more difficulty in tolerating ambiguities and were thus impelled toward closure before full consideration of all facets of the problem. (Kemp, 1960, p. 388) Kemp's findings imply that HD teachers would be less able to tolerate and to cope with social studies materials that call for inquiry, offer conflicting interpretations, and do not spell out the "right" answers or conclusions. By extension, it might be that the HD teacher would find it difficult to accept or even to understand curricula that make more

than one alternative possible or acceptable, to either the teacher or his students.

Along the same lines, Sears (1967, p. 47) concluded that closedminded teachers would be likely to have more difficulty in changing their beliefs about educational processes than would their more openminded colleagues. Kerelejza's (1968, p. 3561) findings supported Sears' conclusion. She investigated the relationship of open and closedmindedness to factors teachers identified and regarded as barriers to curriculum change. Among barriers teachers identified were: school plant and equipment, school personnel, parents, children, time, and school policy. Other barriers were the attitudes, the beliefs, and the feelings of teachers themselves. Kerelejza found that teachers who were closedminded identified a significantly greater number of total barriers to curriculum change than did openminded teachers. The implication is that the degree of dogmatism in teachers may be related to their acceptance and understanding of the NSS. That is, the closedminded teacher will often blame "outside" forces, e.g., lack of money for materials, the school board, large classes, or a hostile administration for being unable to implement changes he professes to accept.

Shaver and Richards (1968) were also concerned with the possible relationship between openmindedness and curriculum change. They asked (1968, p. 32) "Can teachers who are basically closedminded in their construing of the world educate their students to be otherwise?" They concluded that there was no research evidence bearing directly on that question. This review uncovered no additional information and the question remains unanswered. However, Rokeach stated (1968, p. 68) that "if the

closed or dogmatic mind is extremely resistant to change, it may be so not only because it allays anxiety, but also because it satisfies the need to know."

Being able to receive, evaluate, and act upon relevant information is essential in problem-solving because, according to Dewey (1933, p. 212), reflective thinking (essentially problem solving) is the highest level of thought. It involves identifying a problem, gathering data, forming hypotheses, and testing them. In a way not too dissimilar from Rokeach, Dewey defined openmindedness (1933, p. 212) as "... freedom from prejudice, partisanship and other habits that close the mind and make it unwilling to consider new problems and entertain new ideas."

Ehrlich (1961, p. 148) tested and confirmed Rokeach's hypothesis that dogmatism would be inversely related to the degree of learning in a classroom situation, and that such a relationship would be independent of academic aptitude on the part of the student. Although Ehrlich's findings were not directly related to teachers, it might be implied from Ehrlich's study that closedminded teachers would find it difficult to provide an open atmosphere in the classroom. The implication is, that a HD student who scored high on an intelligence test would not necessarily perform well in an inquiry setting and that a LD student who scored low on an intelligence test might perform above his predicted achievement level in an inquiry setting.

If the teacher is HD, it is less likely he would value or attempt to nurture the creative abilities of his students. For example, Mouw (1968, p. 1134) found in his study of the relation of dogmatism to cognitive processes that the more complex or autonomous the cognitive

behavior needed in the performance of tasks, the more the performance is related negatively to degree of dogmatism.

Summary

This section of the review discussed, in general terms, the constructs of authoritarianism and dogmatism. More specifically, the review focused on those studies which have investigated the relationship between dogmatism and an individual's ability to change or accommodate new beliefs. Because many of the New Social Studies Curricula attempt to have teachers move students from the knowledge level through analysis and synthesis and eventually to evaluation, an openminded teacher would be more likely to utilize the higher cognitive skills.

That leads to a question central to this study: Is the closed-minded teacher less likely than his openminded colleague to understand and accept the rationales of the New Social Studies? If teachers must use or adjust to teaching styles that accommodate an open, inquiry-centered atmosphere, curriculum designers and supervisors might wish to know the extent to which the degree of dogmatism has an effect upon teachers' ability to accept and understand the rationales of the New Social Studies.

Educational Philosophy

The teachers' educational philosophy, made up in part of the assumptions he makes about how students learn, is likely to be a key factor in the way he views his classroom role. The possibility that a teacher's educational philosophy is related to his acceptance and understanding of the rationales of the NSS will be investigated in this study.

This section of the review will not attempt to define the various formal schools of educational philosophy. Instead it will:

1. Justify a two dimensional definition of educational philosophy--traditional and progressive.
2. Discuss those studies which have attempted to establish a relationship between educational philosophy and dogmatism.
3. Discuss those studies which have developed scales to measure educational philosophy.

Definitions of educational philosophy

Henderson (1947, p. 237) offered a simple definition of educational philosophy. She said "philosophy of education is concerned with the what, the why, and the how of education." That definition is inadequate, because it could apply equally to educational research or curriculum development, for example. Brauner and Burns (1965, p. 23) were somewhat more precise in their definition. They viewed philosophy of education as the "activity of clarifying the terms, thoughts and principles that guide education, as well as the problems that inhibit education. It is a process that proposes ends, or goals, of education and suggests means to those ends." But their definition is also too broad, in that most curricula are designed to reach goals and propose ways to achieve them.

A statement about the orientation of educational philosophy is offered by Kaufmann (1966, p. 45): "A philosophy of education is centered in a vision of what might be made of man and society." Kaufmann's statement seems most appropriate for this study because social studies project developers generally fail to include statements of the philosophy which guided the development of their curricula, often leaving one

with the impression that what they wish to do is raise the question of what might be made of man and society, using a social studies framework.

Kaufmann believed (1966, p. 45) that the central question of educational philosophy is, "What kinds of men and women should we try to develop?" That question, or similar ones, get to the core of social studies curriculum development. Bettelheim (1966, p. 14) argued that educators should ask what kinds of persons we want our children to be so that they may build a new world, different from the one we live in.

Kaufmann's question has helped to generate conflict among social studies specialists about what the content of social studies should be and how that content should be treated. People who attempt to develop social studies programs immediately attract critics who disagree with their basic assumptions about what ought to be included. Those who have been following the development of New Social Studies curricula and are aware of the dialogue which has accompanied that development at every step would agree with Parker, Edwards, and Stegeman (1965, p. 349) who said "It is easily seen that when people with different philosophies reach different conclusions with respect to education, conflict must arise." Social studies development has produced the kind of conflict Parker, Edwards, and Stegeman speak about.

Yet, the NSS, despite the many differences in approach, share a common understanding--that for the activity to be educationally worthwhile for the student, it should be planned, and the desired outcomes clearly stated. Not speaking directly to the NSS, although they could be, Hullfish and Smith made the point that:

> Teachers confront neither bodiless minds nor mindless bodies. They do face human entities, individuals, each having a unique and distinctive history, and each capable of behaving mindfully.

> What happens in the classroom will be a potent factor in determining whether his actions remain routine and blind or are distinguished by an awareness of what they are about. (Hullfish & Smith, 1961, pp. 153-154)

Many curriculum developers, in attempting to design programs and present materials to which individuals may react and question, would agree with Hullfish and Smith. They would also agree with Dewey that:

> ... it is education's business to cultivate deep-seated and effective habits of discriminating tested beliefs from mere assertions, guesses, and opinions, to develop a lively, sincere, and open-minded preference for conclusions that are properly grounded, and to ingrain into the individual's working habits methods of inquiry and reasoning appropriate to the various problems that present themselves. (Dewey, 1910, pp. 27-28)

Scriven (1966, p. 50) believed the social sciences are involved in a revolution in teaching students how to think about human behavior scientifically. He stated, "The importance of the social sciences arises from the fact that they provide us with the tools for analytical thinking about matters of common and technical concern." (Scriven, 1966, p. 52) Some social studies projects (reviewed earlier) are concerned with training students to think about human affairs scientifically, without regard to the value questions which could arise, while others attempt to get students to deal rationally with the analysis of political-ethical issues which effect the conduct of human affairs. However social studies curriculum developers propose to train students, the processes they select and employ are guided by the particular philosophies of education they hold. Whether the teacher accepts or rejects the curriculum design is determined, in part, by the philosophy that guides him.

According to Smith and Cox (1969, p. 153), the New Social Studies seem clearly to demand very special teacher characteristics. Most

importantly, the teacher must have a philosophical commitment to inquiry. Smith and Cox (1969, p. 154) have also indicated that unless the social studies teacher possesses an educational philosophy which enables him to appreciate and tolerate the alternative points of view implicit in complex societal questions, he will be unable to operate successfully within the framework of the NSS rationales. The teacher must also have the ability to design teaching strategies which will challenge the students to become active inquirers rather than passive consumers of pre-digested facts, ideas, and generalizations. In a broad sense, the teacher with that ability would tend to possess a progressive educational philosophy.

Educational philosophy--traditional and progressive. Clark, Klein, and Burks (1965), Dewey (1916), Gowin, Newsome, and Chandler (1961), and Kerlinger (1956, 1958) have identified two diametrically opposed dimensions of educational philosophy--traditional and progressive. Kerlinger makes a finer distinction than the others between the opposite dimensions. He said:

> Educational attitudes can be conceived as hinging on two relatively independent underlying factors or ideologies, with one of them, Progressivism, being bipolar. Traditionalism is evidently not just the opposite of progressivism in education; the "opposite" of progressivism is really anti-progressivism. Traditionalism seems to have an existence of its own. Rather than being conceived, as it so often has been, as the negation of progressivism, as the other end of the same species, it might better be conceived as the affirmation of a stand which emphasizes a conservative-traditional approach to educational issues and problems. (Kerlinger, 1958b, p. 130)

Kerlinger is one of the few researchers who has attempted empirical studies of basic educational philosophical attitudes. He claimed that educators have long been vitally interested in what seems to be a basic dichotomy in educational thinking. (Kerlinger, 1958a, p. 80) Although other terms, such as "democratic-autocratic" and "permissive-restrictive"

have been used to characterize the dichotomy, Kerlinger has decided that the terms "progressivism" and "traditionalism" best epitomize the distinction. He reported (1958a, p. 80), "... there seems to have been little or no research on progressivism versus traditionalism."

Following two studies to test assumptions about educational values and attitudes (one conducted in the midwest in 1954 and the other in eastern states in 1955-56), Kerlinger was able to report that:

> The basic dichotomy will pervade all areas of education, but individuals will tend to attach differential weights to different areas, specifically to the areas of (a) teaching-subject matter-curriculum, (b) interpersonal relations, (c) normative (roughly, social issues connected with education), and (d) authority-discipline. (Kerlinger, 1958a, p. 81)

Kerlinger's findings seem to indicate that progressivism and traditionalism in education are "real" entities. They emerged as rather clear-cut factors in the statistical analyses of both studies (1958a, p. 90). Because of a lack of research in the area of educational philosophy, Kerlinger's terms--traditionalism and progressivism will be utilized in this study in referring to an educational philosophy dichotomy. Those terms are roughly equivalent to "restrictive-permissive" and "autocratic-democratic."

The relationship between educational philosophy and dogmatism. This review uncovered only one study which attempted to determine whether a relationship exists between dogmatism and educational philosophy. About that relationship Sears said:

> The traditionalist would more likely be closedminded as both traditionalism and closedmindedness are characterized as being authority oriented and opposed to change. Conversely, the progressivist would more likely be openminded; open to change and rejecting hierarchical relationships. A further deduction from this theoretical framework is that there exists a relationship between these attitudes and teacher characteristics which indicate a willingness or unwillingness to participate in activities presenting new information on which to base belief-changing decisions. (Sears, 1967, p. 48)

Sears' study (1967) had two purposes: (1) to determine the relationship among dogmatism, philosophy, and teacher characteristics (such as certification rank, time elapsed since last college credit earned, number of professional organizations in which membership is held, number of professional conferences attended during the last school year, and number of professional publications presently subscribed to); and (2) to determine whether or not a relationship existed between teachers' mean scores on the philosophy scale he developed and the district's holding power.

Sears tested only one hypothesis useful to this study: Closed-minded teachers will tend to have a traditional philosophical orientation and openminded teachers a progressive orientation. He constructed a Likert-type scale to measure philosophic orientation, but did not report the instrument nor discuss the construction or validation procedures. He utilized the Troldahl and Powell (1965) short form of Rokeach's (1960) Dogmatism Scale. Sears concluded that there was a significant relationship between dogmatism and educational philosophy. That is, "closedminded respondents tended to be traditionally oriented while the openminded tended to be progressively oriented." (Sears, 1967, p. 51)

Sears' findings cannot be considered conclusive. It is not known, for example, whether the philosophy scale he constructed validly measured the traditional-progressive dimension as he claimed. In his discussion, Sears did not cite any of the published philosophy scales nor did he describe his own scale. He simply reported "A Likert-type scale to measure philosophical orientation was developed by the author." (Sears, 1967, p. 50)

Educational philosophy scales. A review of research publications and professional literature revealed the absence of any widely used instrument for measuring teachers' philosophies of education. Kerlinger (1956, 1958) developed scales to measure educational "progressivism" and "traditionalism." Using the data and many of the items from these studies, Kerlinger and Kaya (1959) developed a twenty-item scale to measure characteristics associated with each of the two dimensions.

The Kerlinger and Kaya Likert-type scale consisted of ten "progressive" and ten "traditional" items. Although they reported a reliability score of .72 for the progressive dimension and a .78 for the traditional dimension, Kerlinger reported "This study must still be considered exploratory ... . More work needs to be done with different items and different samples and longer scales." (Kerlinger, 1961, p. 284)

A two-philosophies (empirical-rationalistic) Q-Sort instrument called the GNC (Gowin, Newsome, & Chandler, 1961), was developed, based on the work of Kerlinger (1956, 1958) and Kerlinger and Kaya (1959). The GNC consisted of 100 items, developed with the help of scholars of philosophy. The authors investigated relationships between logical consistency and other variables, e.g., educational background, length of service, type of degree, or teaching credential held. They reported, "The GNC Scale needs further development and validation. At present it seems most effective in discriminating between those with little or no background in advanced formal study of education (less than a Master's degree in education) ... and those who have undertaken such study (Master's degree and PhD)." (Gowin, Newsome, & Chandler, 1962, p. 455)

Ryans (1961) took a different approach and developed an instrument which measured conservative and liberal educational viewpoints. The

conservative dimension was defined as content-centered and the liberal dimension was defined as child-centered. Ryans reported that scores on the twenty-item forced-choice instrument revealed differences between teachers related to grade level and subject matter taught, years of experience, and age. Although the Ryans instrument is more a test of a psychological attitude toward students than a measure of educational philosophy, it is reported here because items from his instrument were used to construct the instrument used in this study.

Perhaps the most comprehensive instrument to date, which combines items from the Kerlinger, GNC, and Ryans instruments is the "Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy." (Curran & Gordon, 1966) Curran's Short Test is purported to measure the ontological, epistemological, and axiological dimensions of the teacher's philosophy of education as a basis for classifying it as traditional or progressive.

Curran and his associates reported that 40 of the 100 GNC items, after an item analysis, yielded significant discriminatory power to measure the degree and consistency to which a person's conception of education is traditional or progressive. These 40 items were combined with items from the Ryans and Kerlinger scales which were believed to be "philosophic." Additionally, a College of Education faculty committee from the University of Florida developed a list of concepts which it believed to be important for graduates of the college to understand. From this list, a set of epistemological items was constructed and added to the scale. The resulting 50 item scale was administered to over 350 graduate and undergraduate students in three groups and during two different administration periods.

As a result of the final item analysis, 24 items selected as most usable in a short test which would measure a subject's predisposition to express a philosophy of education that could be termed progressive. Twelve items came from the GNC, six from Kerlinger's studies, four from the University of Florida faculty, and two from Ryan's work. Curran reported "despite the paucity of subjects possessing a traditional philosophy of education, the items were able to yield satisfactory discriminatory power." (Curran, 1966, p. 392) However, he failed to report the criteria by which he made his judgment.

"A Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy" was selected for use in this study because it combines the most valid items from other scales which had been produced and tested previously.

Chapter Summary

This review has focused upon three distinct areas; social studies, dogmatism, and educational philosophy. The major objective in Section I, Social Studies, was to show that there is no universally accepted definition of social studies. Much of the current literature is devoted to untangling the various threads which go to make up workable definitions to come up with a more acceptable definition. So far the efforts have been unsuccessful, in that teachers and curriculum developers are still divided over such definitions as the social studies are the social sciences simplified and adapted for pedagogical purposes and the foremost aim of instruction in high school social studies is to help students examine reflectively issues in closed areas of American culture.

There are several published curricula defined by their developers as "New Social Studies." Most of these projects are designed to teach students the structure of a particular discipline, and some of them utilize inquiry strategies to illustrate selected problems within the disciplines around which the curricula are built. It is not known whether a significant number of social studies teachers see the task of the social studies as having students come to grips with controversial issues, examine underlying values, and make ethical decisions based upon rational inquiry. Yet, the review cited several curriculum leaders who define social studies in those terms.

The controversy seems to lie here. Presently, the New Social Studies are a loosely related collection of disciplines. Yet there are those who insist that the New Social Studies must become interdisciplinary --utilizing the structure and content of many disciplines to help students learn to appreciate the manner in which scholars in the various fields operate. The definitional problem is important to this study in that the review indicates the social studies have not been clearly defined. The review also suggests that the new programs were designed to be implemented by openminded teachers, yet there is no evidence that teachers are, in general, more openminded than are persons in other fields.

Section II, Dogmatism, in addition to citing studies which related dogmatism and ability to accept the new teaching strategies, examined the relationship between dogmatism and critical thinking. It has been speculated that the New Social Studies projects have had limited impact across the country. An objective of this study is to identify factors which might be related to beliefs and attitudes that could inhibit more

widespread acceptance of new programs. Teacher dogmatism was hypothesized to bear such a relationship.

The review has shown that dogmatic people are:

1. Less willing to examine new or conflicting data;
2. Move more quickly toward resolution of a problem, even if in so doing, information must be avoided or ignored.
3. Have difficulty in tolerating ambiguity.
4. Perform less effectively in open, inquiry settings.

A relatively open mind is needed to employ the higher cognitive skills of synthesis and evaluation because discrepant data and conflicting ideas are dealt with at these levels. The teacher who is closedminded might understand the educational value of inquiry, but unless he himself can provide an inquiry model for his students, success in the classroom may be limited.

From Kemp's research it was concluded that low dogmatics were more successful than high dogmatics in solving problems which contained several decision criteria. Because most of the curricula termed "New Social Studies" present conflicting data and no "right" answers, high dogmatics might be unable to teach various modes of inquiry because they themselves have difficulty understanding and accepting those strategies.

Section III, Educational Philosophy, defined two dimensions of educational philosophy--traditional and progressive, discussed the one study which has attempted to investigate the relationship between educational philosophy and dogmatism, and discussed studies which have developed instruments to measure educational philosophy. An attempt was made to show that how a teacher views his students, his role, and expected classroom behaviors makes up an important part of his educational

philosophy, which in turn, may be related to his degree of open or closedmindedness. (Dewey, 1910; Hullfish & Smith, 1961; Smith & Cox, 1968)

The manner in which the teacher operates within his classroom appears to be closely related to his educational philosophy, and plays a large part in determining whether the classroom will be open, inquiry-oriented--allowing for the examination of value positions--or whether it will be closed--with the teacher selecting the content to be imparted and expecting "right" answers to questions he asks. In broad terms, the progressive (not anti-progressive or traditional) educational philosophy is best suited to the open, inquiry-oriented classroom.

Although several philosophies are often discussed in philosophy textbooks (i.e., idealism, realism, neo-Thomism, experimentalism, existentialism), the studies examined in this review identified two general philosophies: traditional and progressive. Surprisingly few empirical studies of the factors which make up educational philosophies have been conducted. Some researchers, notably Kerlinger, Kaya, Ryans, Gowin, Newsome, Chandler, Curran, and Gordon, have identified teacher characteristics common to either traditional or progressive philosophies.

This review examined the areas of social studies education, dogmatism, and educational philosophy, in an attempt to determine whether these factors, singly or in combination, may be related to lack of understanding and acceptance of inquiry-oriented social studies programs.

CHAPTER III

PURPOSE AND PROCEDURES

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this study was to determine whether teachers' dogmatism and educational philosophy are related to their acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies. A secondary purpose was an examination of possible reasons that the NSS projects have not had the expected impact upon social studies teaching across the nation during the past decade.

Much optimism for change in the basic social studies curriculum has been expressed by social studies curriculum leaders. Under grants from the United States Office of Education, Project Social Studies was launched in the late 1950's. It was not until 1966, however, that USOE began funding summer institutes for social studies teachers. Summer institutes were conducted under the auspices of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), National Science Foundation (NSF), and later the Educational Professions Development Act (EPDA). An objective of many of the institutes was to help retrain in-service teachers to revise their own courses of study in order that they could teach their students the structure, rather than just the content, of a particular discipline. Teachers who participated in summer institutes were shown, in a variety of ways--through demonstrations of materials using students in actual classroom settings, micro-teaching, in-class analyses of materials, discussions of methodology, and explanations of the methods teachers should employ to achieve maximum learning results.

Despite the curriculum development and training efforts, by 1968 concern was being expressed from many quarters that, in general, social studies curricula were relatively unchanged. Certainly, new materials were on the market and in the schools, but it was claimed that students and teachers were, in most cases, behaving as they had been for decades. Inquiry processes were discussed and demonstrated at in-service sessions at regional, state, and national social studies conferences, but the transfer of these processes into the classroom appeared to be (and is) rather isolated after six years of such activity. That is, teachers are telling and students are listening.

It has been hypothesized by some that the lack of change in strategies and rationales has to do with the nature of the teacher. Others argue, perhaps with justification, that teacher training has not kept pace with the demands of the New Social Studies. Others may wish to explore the latter avenue. This study, however, focused upon two teacher characteristics which might account for failure to understand and accept the New Social Studies rationales and strategies: the degree to which the teacher is open or closedminded, and the teacher's basic educational philosophy.

Other variables, such as sex, total number of years of teaching experience, undergraduate major, graduate degrees, application to and/or attendance at summer institutes in the social studies, and membership in professional organizations were also examined and correlated with the major variables. The purpose was to determine whether any one or a combination of variables could help to explain the failure of social studies teachers to accept and understand the New Social Studies.

Objectives

Specifically, the study was designed to determine whether open-closedmindedness and progressivism-traditionalism in educational philosophy are related to social studies teachers' acceptance and understanding of the principles and rationales of the NSS.

More specifically the study was set up to:

1. Determine the degree to which teachers' dogmatism is related to their acceptance of the New Social Studies.
2. Determine the degree to which teachers' dogmatism is related to their understanding of the New Social Studies.
3. Determine the degree to which teachers' philosophies are related to their acceptance of the New Social Studies.
4. Determine the degree to which teachers' philosophies are related to their understanding of the New Social Studies.

As a guide to focus the study on the major objectives, the following hypotheses were tested:

1. There will be no relationship between the scores on the Acceptance Scale and the Understanding Scale of the Test of Acceptance and Understanding of the New Social Studies.
2. There will be no relationship between scores on the Acceptance Scale and scores on the Dogmatism Scale (D Scale).
3. There will be no relationship between scores on the Understanding Scale and scores on the D Scale.
4. There will be no relationship between scores on the Acceptance Scale and scores on the Educational Philosophy Scale.

5. There will be no relationship between scores on the Understanding Scale and scores on the Educational Philosophy Scale.
6. There will be no significant interaction between high, medium, and low categorizations on the C Scale and D Scales in affecting scores on the Acceptance Scale.
7. There will be no significant interaction between high, medium, and low categorizations on the C Scale and D Scale in affecting scores on the Understanding Scale.

Procedures

Population and sample. The setting for this study was a major urban area of the United States--three counties of the Greater San Francisco Bay Area. The San Francisco Bay Area is urban-suburban in composition, and in each county included in the study, there are various types of comprehensive secondary schools: size (over 1800), (1500-1800), (1201-1500), (801-1200), (under 800); architecturally modern to traditional; experimental (flexible scheduling, modular scheduling, "clusters," and "hardware") to traditional; racially homogeneous and heterogeneous; serving higher and lower socio-economic areas; mobile and stable student bodies and staffs. Some or all of these factors might be related to teacher attitudes about and knowledge of the New Social Studies, and to educational philosophy.

The three counties from which the sample were drawn were San Mateo, Santa Clara, and Contra Costa. There were ninety-one public, comprehensive high schools from which to draw, listed by county and enrollment, as reported for the school year 1970-1971 in the California School Directory, Secondary Edition, 45th Edition, November 1970-71.

From the complete list, a random sample consisting of thirty-three schools, or one-third of the population of schools, was selected by Dr. Dan Jones, Professor of Political Science and public opinion analyst at Utah State University. The sample was stratified by county and by size of enrollment (under 800, 801-1200, 1201-1500, 1501-1800, over 1800). From 23 schools in Contra Costa County, eight were selected. From 25 schools in San Mateo County, nine were selected. From 43 schools in Santa Clara County, 16 were selected. In addition, three alternate schools were designated.

Sample characteristics. The sample of teachers included 222 respondents from the randomly selected schools. There were 163 (73.4 percent) males and 59 (26.6 percent) females. Contra Costa County had 49 (22.1 percent) respondents; San Mateo had 68 (30.6 percent) and Santa Clara County had 105 (47.3 percent).

Only 12 respondents (5.4 percent) taught in schools with fewer than 1200 students. From schools with 1200 to 1800 students, there were 133 (59.9 percent) teachers and 77 teachers (34.7 percent) taught in schools with more than 1800 students.

There were 25 teachers (11.3 percent) between the ages of 21-25; 59 (25.5 percent) between the ages 26-35; 88 (39.6 percent) between the ages 36-45; 41 (19.5 percent) between the ages 46-55; and nine (4.1 percent) of the teachers in the sample were over 55 years of age.

Included in the sample were 44 (19.8 percent) with 1-3 years of experience; 39 (17.6 percent) with 4-6 years of experience; 89 (40.1 percent) with 7-15 years of experience; and 50 (22.5 percent) with more than 15 years teaching experience.

The dependent variables analyzed in this study were the responses of secondary school social studies teachers from schools drawn at random to the Acceptance, Understanding, D, and C Scales. These Scales measure, respectively, teacher acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies rationales, their degree of dogmatism (D Scale), and their educational philosophies (C Scale).

It was first determined that there was a great deal of homogeneity among teachers from different counties, districts, and schools. There were no significant differences among the mean scores on the four dependent variables for county, district, or school as Tables 1 through 12 show.

Tables 1 through 4 report analyses of variance on scores on the four dependent variables grouped by county. The F ratios of .84, .72, 2.59, and .02 all have probabilities greater than .05.

Table 1

Analysis of Variance of Acceptance Scores (SA Scale) for Three Counties in the San Francisco Bay Area

County	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
Contra Costa	49	84.8	8.9	
San Mateo	68	86.0	8.9	
Santa Clara	105	86.8	8.9	
				.84

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.

Table 2

Analysis of Variance of Understanding Scores (SU Scale) for Three Counties in the San Francisco Bay Area

County	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
Contra Costa	49	11.6	2.5	
San Mateo	68	11.0	2.5	
Santa Clara	105	11.1	2.5	.72

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.

Table 3

Analysis of Variance of Dogmatism Scores (D Scale) for Three Counties in the San Francisco Bay Area

County	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
Contra Costa	49	53.0	12.7	
San Mateo	68	55.0	12.8	
Santa Clara	105	50.6	12.5	2.59

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.

Table 4

Analysis of Variance of Philosophy Scores (C Scale)
for Three Counties in the San Francisco Bay Area

County	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
Contra Costa	49	58.2	11.6	
San Mateo	68	59.2	11.6	
Santa Clara	105	59.5	11.5	
				.02

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.

Tables 5 through 8 report analyses of variance on the four dependent variables grouped by districts. The F ratios of 1.38, .66, .24, and .89 again all have probabilities greater than .05.

Table 5

Analysis of Variance of Acceptance Scores (SA Scale)
for Fourteen School Districts in Three Counties in the
San Francisco Bay Area

District	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
1	17	83.6	8.8	
2	7	92.7	8.7	
3	20	83.8	8.7	
4	5	82.0	8.7	
5	10	87.8	8.9	
6	42	85.2	8.8	
7	16	87.0	8.8	
8	9	83.0	8.9	
9	14	90.6	9.0	
10	22	85.5	8.9	
11	32	85.0	8.9	
12	4	85.8	2.5	
13	17	89.4	8.8	
14	7	90.6	8.7	
				1.38

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 1.80/2.28 with 13/200 d.f.

Table 6

Analysis of Variance of Understanding Scores (SU Scale) for Fourteen School Districts in Three Counties in the San Francisco Bay Area

District	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
1	17	11.5	2.5	
2	7	11.6	2.5	
3	20	11.5	2.5	
4	5	12.0	2.5	
5	10	12.0	2.5	
6	42	10.6	2.5	
7	16	11.6	2.5	
8	9	10.9	2.5	
9	14	11.0	2.6	
10	22	11.8	2.5	
11	32	11.1	2.5	
12	4	12.3	2.5	
13	17	10.7	2.5	
14	7	10.3	2.5	
				.66

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 1.80/2.28 with 13/200 d.f.

Table 7

Analysis of Variance of Dogmatism Scores (D Scale) for Fourteen School Districts in Three Counties in the San Francisco Bay Area

District	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
1	17	55.4	12.6	
2	7	48.0	12.5	
3	20	54.2	12.5	
4	5	47.4	12.5	
5	10	54.0	12.8	
6	42	53.0	12.9	
7	16	61.4	12.7	
8	9	49.3	12.7	
9	14	49.5	12.9	
10	22	51.0	12.7	
11	32	52.0	12.8	
12	4	53.8	6.2	
13	17	51.4	12.6	
14	7	43.6	12.5	
				.24

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 1.80/2.28 with 13/200 d.f.

Table 8

Analysis of Variance of Philosophy Scores (C Scale) for Fourteen School Districts in Three Counties in the San Francisco Bay Area

District	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
1	17	57.6	11.5	
2	7	68.7	11.4	
3	20	56.8	11.4	
4	5	61.0	11.4	
5	10	63.6	11.8	
6	42	58.6	12.6	
7	16	58.0	12.0	
8	9	56.6	11.6	
9	14	60.0	11.7	
10	22	58.0	11.6	
11	32	58.3	11.6	
12	4	66.5	11.6	
13	17	62.0	11.5	
14	7	62.1	11.4	
				.89

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 1.80/2.28 with 13/200 d.f.

Table 9 presents the analysis of variance of Acceptance scores for 29 schools. An F ratio of 1.56 ($P > .05$) was obtained indicating consistency among schools in the teachers' degree of acceptance of the rationales of the NSS. Tables 10, 11, and 12 report analyses of variance on the other three dependent variables grouped by schools. The F ratios of .96, 1.15, and 1.78 all have probabilities greater than .05.

Table 9

Analysis of Variance of Acceptance Scores (SA Scale) for 29 Schools in 14 Districts in Three Counties in the San Francisco Bay Area

School	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
1	10	83.2	8.8	
2	7	84.3	8.5	
3	7	92.7	8.5	
4	3	82.0	9.0	
5	10	79.9	8.8	
6	7	90.0	8.5	
7	5	82.0	8.5	
8	10	87.8	8.7	
9	9	83.7	8.7	
10	4	94.5	8.7	
11	12	80.4	8.8	
12	9	87.4	8.7	
13	8	87.0	8.9	
14	5	92.6	8.5	
15	11	84.5	8.9	
16	9	83.0	8.7	
17	5	85.6	8.5	
18	9	93.4	8.7	
19	9	84.0	8.7	
20	5	89.9	8.5	
21	8	84.5	8.9	
22	5	85.2	8.5	
23	11	87.6	8.9	
24	5	85.8	8.5	
25	11	82.1	8.9	
26	4	85.8	8.7	
27	8	88.8	8.8	
28	9	90.0	8.7	
29	7	90.6	8.5	
	211			1.56

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 1.52/1.79 with 30/200 d.f.

d.f. = 28/193

1.55

1.87

Table 10

Analysis of Variance of Understanding Scores (SA Scale) for 29 Schools in 14 Districts in Three Counties in the San Francisco Bay Area

School	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
1	10	10.9	2.5	
2	7	12.4	2.4	
3	7	11.6	2.4	
4	3	10.3	2.6	
5	10	11.2	2.5	
6	7	12.4	2.4	
7	5	12.0	2.4	
8	10	12.0	2.5	
9	9	9.7	2.5	
10	4	11.7	2.5	
11	12	10.8	2.5	
12	9	10.4	2.5	
13	8	11.0	2.5	
14	5	13.0	2.4	
15	11	10.9	2.6	
16	9	10.9	2.5	
17	5	10.2	2.4	
18	9	11.4	2.5	
19	9	12.5	2.5	
20	5	13.2	2.4	
21	8	10.0	2.4	
22	5	10.0	2.4	
23	11	11.5	2.6	
24	5	12.2	2.4	
25	11	10.6	2.6	
26	4	12.3	2.5	
27	8	10.4	2.6	
28	9	11.0	2.5	
29	7	10.3	2.4	
				.96

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 1.52/1.79 with 30/200 d.f.

Table II

Analysis of Variance of Dogmatism Scores (D Scale)
for 29 Schools in 14 Districts in Three Counties
in the San Francisco Bay Area

School	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
1	10	55.2	12.8	
2	7	55.6	12.5	
3	7	48.0	12.5	
4	3	63.3	13.2	
5	10	54.4	12.8	
6	7	50.0	12.5	
7	5	47.4	12.5	
8	10	54.0	12.8	
9	9	53.9	12.7	
10	4	43.5	12.7	
11	12	51.8	12.8	
12	9	57.0	12.7	
13	8	53.8	13.0	
14	5	58.6	12.5	
15	11	62.6	13.0	
16	9	49.3	12.7	
17	5	50.8	12.5	
18	9	48.8	12.7	
19	9	51.1	12.7	
20	5	53.6	12.5	
21	8	49.3	13.0	
22	5	46.0	12.5	
23	11	52.4	13.0	
24	4	40.4	12.5	
25	11	59.5	13.0	
26	4	53.8	12.7	
27	8	53.0	13.0	
28	9	50.0	12.7	
29	7	43.6	12.5	
				1.15

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 1.52/1.79 with 30/200 d.f.

Table 12

Analysis of Variance of Philosophy Scores (C Scale)
for 29 Schools in 14 Districts in Three Counties
in the San Francisco Bay Area

School	N	Mean	S.D.	F*
1	10	52.6	11.1	
2	7	64.7	10.8	
3	7	68.7	10.8	
4	3	54.3	11.4	
5	10	53.2	11.1	
6	7	62.9	10.8	
7	5	61.0	10.8	
8	10	63.0	11.1	
9	9	58.4	11.0	
10	4	75.0	11.0	
11	12	54.0	11.1	
12	9	55.9	11.0	
13	8	60.5	11.3	
14	5	59.4	10.8	
15	11	57.4	11.3	
16	9	56.6	11.0	
17	5	56.8	10.8	
18	9	61.9	11.0	
19	9	52.4	11.0	
20	5	64.6	10.8	
21	8	60.1	11.3	
22	5	49.2	10.8	
23	11	65.0	11.3	
24	4	64.2	10.8	
25	11	53.0	11.3	
26	4	66.5	11.0	
27	8	63.8	11.3	
28	9	60.4	11.0	
29	7	62.1	10.8	
				1.78

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 1.52/1.79 with 30/200 d.f.

In summary, the preceding 12 tables show no significant differences among the scores of the four dependent variables--Acceptance, Understanding, Dogmatism, and Philosophy scores for county, district, or school. We may conclude, therefore, that the sample was homogeneous in the sense that there were no significant differences among counties, districts, or schools.

In addition to the above descriptions of the sample, 19.8 percent of all respondents who had earned Master's Degrees, received them in history, while 9.9 percent and 5.5 percent had earned Master's Degrees in social science and social studies respectively (Table 13). Of the respondents in all counties, 50.5 percent had not received the Master's Degree in any field. Few of the social studies teachers had earned Master's Degrees in sociology (1.4 percent), economics (0.9 percent), or political science (3.6 percent). Expected frequencies were too small to use chi-square on the data in Table 13.

A similar pattern is seen for teachers' undergraduate fields of preparation as shown in Table 14. History undergraduate majors accounted for 35.1 percent of the total sample, while sociology, geography, and economics accounted for only 5.9 percent combined. Social science and social studies majors are reported separately and account for 24.3 percent and 5.4 percent respectively. However, it should be pointed out that many California colleges and universities do not support social studies departments. Further, in many of the California state colleges, little distinction is made between social studies and social science. In view of this, it makes sense to combine the two categories and consider that 29.7 percent of the undergraduate majors in our sample were in social science/social studies.

Table 13

Tabulation of all Respondents by Master's Degree Area and County

County	Hist.	Poli. Sci.	Soc.	Econ.	Psych.	Educ.	Soc. Sci.	Soc. Stu.	No. M.A.
Contra Costa	14* (6.3)**	0 (0.0)	1 (0.5)	0 (0.0)	2 (0.9)	2 (0.9)	3 (1.4)	1 (0.5)	26 (11.7)
San Mateo	11 (5.0)	5 (2.3)	1 (0.5)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.5)	6 (2.7)	5 (2.3)	7 (3.2)	32 (14.4)
Santa Clara	19 (8.6)	3 (1.4)	1 (0.5)	2 (0.9)	2 (0.9)	6 (2.7)	14 (6.3)	4 (1.8)	54 (24.3)
Totals	44 (19.8)	8 (3.6)	3 (1.4)	2 (0.9)	5 (2.3)	14 (6.3)	22 (9.9)	12 (5.4)	112 (50.5)

*Observations

**Percentages--in parentheses

Table 14

Tabulation of All Respondents by Undergraduate Major and County

County	Hist.	Poli. Sci.	Soc.	Geog.	Econ.	Psych.	Soc. Sci.	Soc. Stu.	Other
Contra Costa	20* (9.0)**	6 (2.7)	1 (0.5)	1 (0.5)	1 (0.5)	1 (0.5)	6 (2.7)	5 (2.3)	8 (3.6)
San Mateo	27 (12.2)	16 (7.2)	1 (0.5)	2 (0.9)	2 (0.9)	0 (0.0)	16 (7.2)	1 (0.5)	3 (1.4)
Santa Clara	31 (14.0)	9 (4.1)	2 (0.9)	1 (0.5)	2 (0.9)	1 (0.5)	32 (14.4)	6 (2.7)	21 (9.5)
Totals	78 (35.1)	31 (14.0)	4 (1.8)	4 (1.8)	5 (2.3)	2 (0.9)	54 (24.3)	12 (5.4)	32 (14.4)

*Observations

** Percentages--in parentheses

Data collection. Once the schools to be sampled had been selected, districts in which the schools were located were contacted. Sixteen school districts were initially involved. On November 27, 1971, a letter was sent to each of the sixteen district superintendents from the Office of the Bureau of Educational Research (now the Bureau of Research Services for the College of Education) at Utah State University, over the signature of Dr. James P. Shaver, Director of the Bureau. The letter (Appendix A) informed the superintendent that the school or schools in their district had been randomly selected to participate in a social studies research project and asked permission to contact the principal of each school that had been selected. The superintendent was assured that there would be no attempt to contact any school directly without his approval.

Permission to contact principals was received from fifteen of the sixteen district superintendents. One superintendent, from whose district two schools had been drawn, reported his schools would be unable to participate. Two of the alternate schools were then substituted on the list.

As letters of approval were received from superintendents, the principals of the schools were contacted. In that letter (Appendix B), the nature of the study was outlined, and the principal was asked to allow his social studies teachers to participate. He was also asked to designate an agent who would be responsible for administering the questionnaire to members of his social studies staff.

All of the principals contacted agreed to allow the study to be conducted in their schools and provided the names of staff members to

contact. In most cases, the agent designated was the social studies department chairman. As permission from principals was received, a letter (Appendix C) was sent to the agent designated, along with test booklets (Appendix D), answer sheets (Appendix E), and stamped, return-addressed envelopes.

This procedure was followed to assure a high percentage of returns. Although the procedure required writing over one hundred letters, the results justified the effort. We were very careful to ask permission to proceed at each step along the way. For example, in the letter to the agent who would administer the questionnaire, he was told that both his superintendent and principal had agreed to permit the study, but he, the agent, was to determine whether he would have time to participate, or, in fact, wanted to do so. Two department chairmen, both from the same district, declined to participate. Because only those two schools had been selected from that district, the total number of participating districts was reduced to 14. One chairman from another district also declined to participate, but two other schools had been drawn from that district.

In order to maintain a 33 school sample, all the schools in the population of schools not included in the original sample were assigned a number. Then, using a table of random numbers, four more schools were drawn. Letters were sent to the principals and department chairmen on February 18, 1972. Superintendents had already given permission to contact schools in their districts (Appendix F). One school had already been drawn by a district social studies coordinator to replace a school in his district which did not participate.

Each letter to the agent in the school selected asked him to administer and return the questionnaires within ten days if possible. Twenty-one days from the date the materials were mailed, a follow-up letter was sent to agents who had not returned the questionnaires (Appendix G). Principals or department chairmen from 11 schools were contacted by telephone on February 9, 1972. All agreed to return the completed questionnaires within a week.

As completed questionnaires were returned, each individual answer sheet was coded (county, district, school number) and the name of the school was written on the face of each answer sheet. Each answer sheet was hand scored, because Sections B (Acceptance) and E (Philosophy C Scale) were likert-type questionnaires in which the direction of scoring differed with certain questions.

The date the materials were received was noted on a master list of schools so it could be determined which schools had not yet responded. It was then possible to determine when to send follow-up letters or make direct contact by telephone. Four agents had not responded by March 25, 1972, and after speaking with each of them, it was apparent that further efforts to have them administer the questionnaire would be fruitless. The final returns, then, were from 14 districts, 29 schools, and 222 teachers. Based upon the average daily attendance of each school selected and assuming each full-time social studies teacher met five classes of 35 students, we estimated a potential sample of 243 teachers. Returns from 222 respondents represent an approximate 94 percent of our potential sample.

Instrumentation

Acceptance of the New Social Studies. To obtain a quantitative estimate of teacher acceptance of the NSS, an 18 statement questionnaire was constructed. Nine of the statements expressed the thoughts and attitudes of social studies curriculum developers and/or trainers of social studies teachers recognized by knowledgeable people in the field to be proponents of the New Social Studies. The other nine statements expressed thoughts and attitudes considered to reflect traditional social studies. The statements were constructed following the exhaustive review of the literature reported in Chapter II, pertaining to activities and definitions of the NSS over the past 15 years. "Flag words," such as discovery, traditional, coverage, and new, were avoided because it was assumed that many social studies teachers are now aware of the growing controversy over New Social Studies and traditional content courses in history and the social sciences.

The 18 statements were put in random order in a questionnaire that was sent to four social studies curriculum specialists (Dr. Richard Knight, Utah State University; Dr. A. Guy Larkins, University of Georgia; Dr. John Haas, University of Colorado; Dr. Jack Cousins, University of Colorado) requesting that they identify statements they believed representative of the New Social Studies rationales. Additionally, the judges were asked to revise any statements they thought were unclear or ambiguous. They were not told that half of the statements represented New Social Studies thinking, but were told the ultimate purpose of the questionnaire.

Instructions to the social studies curriculum experts read:

> Place an "X" next to those statements below which, if made by a teacher, would best express acceptance of assumptions underlying the "new social studies" projects. Please make any comments you wish about the statements, regarding clarity, intent, "loading," or relevance. These statements (or similar ones) will be used in a questionnaire to survey teacher acceptance of the new social studies rationales and strategies.

Only statements on which there was unanimous agreement were retained for the questionnaire. The statements were rewritten, following the suggestions received from the four judges. As a result, the list was reduced to 16 statements, eight of which reflected "new" social studies thought and eight of which reflected more "traditional" thought.

A questionnaire was then designed using the paired-comparison forced-choice technique. Sets of statements, one representing new social studies orientation and the other reflecting traditional social studies orientation, were presented to the respondent with instructions to choose one statement from each pair on the basis of the criterion: "Which statement would you most agree with if you were designing a new social studies course?"

From the total of 16 statements, 12 were selected to be paired. This was done in order to reduce the length of the questionnaire. If all 16 statements were used, the instrument would have had 64 pairs. Of the 12 statements, (6 representing new social studies thought and 6 representing traditional thought) each (A) statement was systematically paired with each (B) statement to produce a 36-item scale.

For a trial run, the questionnaire was administered to a group of 35 in-service teachers attending a summer institute in sociology at Utah State University in August, 1971. Instructions read:

> The following section contains 36 pairs of statements. Read each pair and decide which of the two stated assumptions you would be more likely to make if you were designing a new social studies course. Please circle either "A" or "B" on your answer sheet next to the number corresponding to the statement.

From a frequency count of responses, it was evident that most of the teachers chose the statement in each pair which reflected New Social Studies thought. Also, from conversations with members of the group following administration of the questionnaire, it was learned that they believed it was much too long and repetitive. Of particular importance, many of the participants said it was not difficult to select the "proper" response; that is, they had little difficulty selecting responses to score high in acceptance of the NSS rationales, which they correctly perceived as the thrust of the questionnaire.

It was hypothesized that the sample was more sophisticated in their responses than social studies teachers at large, since they had been selected for participation in the summer institute on the basis of their leadership ability in the field of social studies education. To test that hypothesis, an alternative form of the test was constructed, using the original 16 statements which had received unanimous agreement from the four curriculum leaders at the outset. A Likert-type scale was employed this time. The questions were arranged in random order. Instructions read:

> The following section contains 16 statements. Fill in the space provided on the attached answer sheet according to how much you would agree or disagree with the statement if you were designing a new social studies course. Please answer each question. Mark in +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending upon how you feel. There are, of course, no "right" or "wrong answers.

+1	I Agree a Little	-1	I Disagree a Little
+2	I Agree on the Whole	-2	I Disagree on the Whole
+3	I Agree Very Much	-3	I Disagree very much

Both forms of the questionnaire were then administered to 43 in-service teachers in six schools in the San Francisco Bay Area. The schools were selected at random from a list of all schools in Santa Clara County not selected for the sample. Nineteen teachers in three schools were given the original 36-item paired-comparison test and 24 teachers in three schools were given the revised 16-item Likert-type scale.

An analysis of the responses of the 36-item test produced results very similar to those for the summer institute group. In short, there was very little discrimination. On the other hand, the answers of the group which responded to the Likert-type scale varied considerably. Employing the Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 (as discussed in Garrett, 1962, pp. 341-344), a reliability coefficient of .74 was computed. It was decided at that point to use the 16-item Likert-type test for the study. After the data for this study had been collected, the same formula, Kuder-Richardson Formula 21, was again used to compute reliability on the acceptance section of the questionnaire. With an N of 222 respondents, a reliability coefficient of .76 was achieved.

Understanding of the New Social Studies. It has been established previously (Chapter II), that there is no clear-cut definition of the New Social Studies. Yet, teachers in the field are being asked to use new materials, attend in-service sessions and take additional graduate courses in social studies methodology in order to "update" their curricula--to adopt "new" social studies strategies.

A test to determine the extent to which in-service teachers understand the rationales and strategies of the NSS was difficult to construct, in view of the controversy over what the social studies are. Barth and

Shermis (1970, pp. 743-751), provided the base for the construction of the test when they identified three traditions in social studies: (1) social studies as citizenship transmission, (2) social studies as social science, and (3) social studies as reflective inquiry.

Barr (1970, p. 753), commenting upon the Barth-Shermis definition, saw the three positions they described as being interrelated, or overlapping. Barr placed the positions along a continuum, with citizenship transmission at the left and reflective inquiry at the right (Chapter II). Accepting Barr's contention that the social studies positions as defined by Barth and Shermis overlap, a six-position continuum was constructed. Statements by contemporary curriculum writers and project developers were paraphrased which expressed viewpoints about what social studies is, ranging from Position 1, "Acquiring knowledge in and about the social sciences is self-justifying and self-validating" to Position 6, "A legitimate aim of the social studies teacher is to help students learn to examine various positions on matters of public policy."

Three statements were written to coincide with each of the six positions on the continuum. To determine whether the statements were actually representative of the position assigned, the four social studies curriculum experts who judged the statements on the Acceptance section were also asked to rate the statements designed for the Understanding section. The 18 statements were mixed randomly and instructions to the raters read as follows:

> Please rate each of the following 18 statements about social studies along a continuum from "traditional" to "new" social studies. Left of center on the continuum (from 1 to 3.5), represents differing degrees of traditional thought about social studies teaching and strategies and right of center (from 3.5 to 6) represents degrees of "new" thought about social studies teaching and strategies. In the space next

> to each item number, please write the numerical value you would assign, using whole numbers from 1 to 6--from "traditional" to "new" social studies. These statements (or similar ones) will be used in a questionnaire to survey teacher understanding of the new social studies rationales and strategies.
>
> Traditional . New Social Studies
>
> 1 2 3 . 4 5 6

Upon examining the results, which were again accompanied by comments concerning wording and ambiguities, it was discovered that each of the four raters were in general agreement as to where each statement should be positioned. For example, for the statement

> The best way to attain the goal of good citizenship is to have the students learn facts, principles, beliefs, and theories which can be applied at a later time.

all four rated it (1) or traditional. On other statements, such as

> A major task of the social studies teacher is to describe events, people, phenomena, and ideas that society deems worthy of all citizens.

three raters placed it at (1) while one rater placed it at (2).

When positions (1) and (2); (3) and (4); (5) and (6); were combined, all four raters agreed on all statements. That is, they differed on some statements by one position on the continuum; but when the two positions were treated as one, there was unanimous agreement. There were no (2)-(3), or (4)-(5) splits.

Statements were revised using the suggestions by the raters. It was then decided to use a three-position continuum. The six statements that were identified by the raters as positions (1) and (2) on the original continuum were called 1 (traditional). The six statements initially identified as positions (3) and (4) were designated 2 (neither traditional nor new social studies or a combination of both). The six statements

initially identified as positions (5) and (6) were designated 3 (New Social Studies). The close agreement among the four raters indicated test validity.

A questionnaire was then constructed with these instructions to the respondent:

> Please rate the following 18 statements about social studies along a continuum from "traditional" to "new" social studies. You may think some of the statements are clearly traditional, in which case you would score them"1". Statements you think reflect the new social studies would be scored "3". Statements which you think contain elements of both traditional and new thought, or do not clearly reflect either traditional or new thought, should be scored "2".
>
> Traditional ——— New
>
> 1 . 2 . 3

The range of scores on the test was 0 to 18, where each correct response scored 1 point. With the sample of teachers from six schools which were used to test the Acceptance section of the questionnaire, a reliability of .76 was achieved on the Understanding section, using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 21.

When the Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 was used to compute reliability on the Understanding section of the completed questionnaire for the 222 respondents in the main study, a reliability coefficient of .34 was computed. This was obviously a much lower coefficient than had been obtained from the results of the questionnaire administered to the pilot group. The original computation, from which a reliability coefficient of .76 was reported, was recomputed. An addition error was discovered. When corrected, a reliability coefficient of .32 was obtained. If that error had been discovered before the test was administered, steps would have been taken to increase reliability. For example, using the Spearman-Brown

Prophesy Formula (McNemar, 1962, p. 208), it can be predicted that the test would have had to have been lengthened to 57 statements to attain a reliability of .80. In analyzing the data, correction for attenuation, discussed later, was used to estimate what correlation coefficients would have been obtained had the Understanding section been perfectly reliable.

A Short Form Dogmatism Scale for use in field studies (D Scale). Because the questionnaire administered in this study included four different scales, administration time had to be reduced as much as possible. For that reason, A Short Form Dogmatism Scale for Use in Field Studies, developed by Troldahl and Powell (1965, pp. 211-214), was used. Troldahl and Powell revised Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale Form E (Rokeach, 1960, p. 90), reducing the original 40 items to 20.

Reliability for the 40-item D Scale has been consistently high. Shaver and Richards (1968, p. 40) reported reliability coefficients of .82 and .92 for two separate samples of education majors. Plant reported (1965, p. 281) reliability coefficients of .84 and .85 for samples of college freshmen men and women respectively. Rokeach (1960, pp. 89-90) reported test-retest coefficients over a six-month period of .74.

The Troldahl and Powell version of the D Scale continued the reliability of the 40-item instrument. Kemp and Kohler (1965), employing the test-retest method with a two-month interval, reported a reliability coefficient for the Short Form D Scale of .82. Later, using the Rulon method, they obtained a .92 reliability on the same instrument. Troldahl and Powell obtained a split-half reliability coefficient, corrected with the Spearman-Brown Prophesy Formula, of .79 (1965, p. 214). Using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 21 with the scores of 222 respondents

in this study, a reliability coefficient of .82 was obtained.

Rokeach's D Scale has undergone many validity studies, some of which were reviewed in Chapter II. Plant (1960) agreed with Rokeach's contention that the D Scale was a better measure of general authoritarianism than was the F Scale. Barker (1963) and Hanson (1968) have also concluded that the D Scale measures general authoritarianism as purported by Rokeach.

Low and Shaver (1971, p. 22) reported several factor analytic studies conducted on the D Scale. Vacchiano, Schiffman and Strauss employed three independent factor analyses of the items on the 40-item D Scale for the three groups of data, and concluded that item factors tended to form around Rokeach's (1960) definition of D Scale items and that the D Scale had empirical validity. Low and Shaver concluded "research supports the validity of Rokeach's construct of dogmatism and the Scale he developed to assess general authoritarianism." (1971, p. 22)

On this section of the questionnaire, the following instructions were given to the respondents:

> The following is a study of what the general public thinks and feels about a number of important social and personal questions. The best answer in each statement below is your personal opinion. We have tried to cover many different and opposing points of view; you may find yourself agreeing strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others. Whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same as you do.
>
> On the response sheet, fill in the space provided for each answer according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please fill in the space for each question. Mark in +3, +2, +1, -1, -2, or -3, depending upon how you feel.

+1 I Agree a Little	-1 I Disagree a Little
+2 I Agree on the Whole	-2 I Disagree on the Whole
+3 I Agree Very Much	-3 I Disagree Very Much

A Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy (C Scale). As already noted in the review of the literature, A Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy (C Scale) was developed by R. L. Curran (1966) and his associates at the University of Florida's College of Education. The test was developed to provide data which would be useful in examining teachers' philosophies of education, defined by Curran (1966, p. 383) as a logically interrelated set of concepts about reality, knowledge, and values.

In a follow-up report prepared for the Florida Educational Research and Development Council, Curran (1966) reported:

> Insofar as discriminating among groups that conventional wisdom expects to have different educational philosophies is taken as evidence of validity, the Educational Opinionnaire proved dramatically valid. If validity of measure of educational opinion is taken to mean measure of genuinely held opinion, there is no reason for doubting the validity of the Opinionnaire. It may as well be assumed that in the generalized, socially intangible situations which the Opinionnaire presented, the educators expressed their genuine opinions.

The procedures Curran used to develop the C Scale were discussed in Chapter II. After four item analyses were conducted, a final group of 24 items were selected as most reliable in a short test which would measure a subject's predisposition to express a philosophy of education (Curran, 1966, p. 387).

The test-retest reliability correlation coefficient was reported to be .82. However, Curran did not report the kind and size of his sample. Using the Kuder-Richardson Formula 21, with scores of the 222 respondents in this study, we obtained a reliability coefficient of .84.

On this section of the questionnaire, the following instructions were given to the respondents:

> The following 24 statements are representative of differing educational beliefs. On the response sheet, fill in the space provided for each answer according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Mark in 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5, depending upon how you feel.

The design of this opinionnaire requires that every statement be evaluated, so please respond to each statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree

Scoring

Section "A" of the instrument used in this study contained questions about eight descriptive variables: sex, age, total number of years of teaching experience, college undergraduate major, area in which master's degree was earned, attendance at summer institutes in social studies, number of times applied to summer institutes, and membership in professional organizations. Depending upon the category, the respondent could select a number from 0 to 9 and record the numeral on the response sheet.

Section "B," Acceptance, consisted of 16 statements, eight representing New Social Studies thought and eight representing traditional social studies thought. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used. The statements were arranged in random order so that statements 1, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 14, and 16 were representative of New Social Studies thought, while statements 2, 3, 6, 7, 9, 12, 13, and 15 were representative of traditional social studies thought.

In order to obtain a total raw score, it was necessary to reverse the value assigned to the two types of questions. Therefore, +3, "I Agree Very Much," would be scored 1 point and -3, "I Disagree Very Much," would be scored 7 points on those statements representing traditional social studies thought.

The section was hand scored, following this procedure: Numbers 1, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 14, and 16 were circled on the answer sheet and point values placed next to those numbers according to the respondent's answer. For example, if the respondent wrote +3, that answer was scored 7; +2 = 6; +1 = 5; -1 = 3, -2 = 2; -3 = 1. If there was no answer, the item was scored 4. Numbers 2, 3, 6, 7, 9, 12, 13, and 15 were not circled and were scored as follows: +3 = 1; +2 = 2, +1 = 3; -1 = 5; -2 = 6; -3 = 7. The possible range was from 16 (accepting traditional social studies thought) to 112 (accepting New Social Studies thought).

Section "C", Understanding, consisted of 18 statements. Six statements represented a traditional position, six statements represented a New Social Studies position, and six statements represented an overlapping, or neither a clearly traditional nor new position. The statements were randomly mixed, and the scoring key was as follows:

1. -1	4. -2	7. -3	10. -2	13. -3	16. -2
2. -2	5. -3	8. -2	11. -3	14. -1	17. -1
3. -3	6. -1	9. -2	12. -1	15. -3	18. -1

This section was also hand-scored, and each correct response received one point. The possible range was 0 to 18 points. A score of zero represented the least possible understanding of the rationales of the NSS, as measured by the test, while 18 points represented the highest understanding of the NSS rationales as measured by the test.

Section "D", Short Form of the Dogmatism Scale (D Scale), contained 20 statements responded to on a Likert-type scale. This test is one-directional. Answers were scored as follows: +3 = 7; +2 = 6; +1 = 5; -1 = 3; -2 = 2; -3 = 1. The possible range was from 20 (closedminded-dogmatic) to 140 (openminded-non-dogmatic).

Section "E", A Short Test of One's Educational Philosophy (C Scale), contained 24 statements. Similar to Section "B," in order to obtain a total raw score, it was necessary to reverse the values assigned to certain questions. The following scoring procedure was followed:

Statements 3, 5, 9, 10, 15, 21, and 23 were circled on the response sheet, and point values for those questions were assigned as follows: If the respondent marked 1 - "Strongly Agree," the statement was scored 4 points; 2 - "Agree" = 3; 3 - "Neither Agree Nor Disagree" = 2; 4 - "Disagree" = 1; 5 - "Strongly Disagree" = 0. Responses to the remaining 16 statements were scored as follows: 1 - "Strongly Agree" = 0; 2 - "Agree" = 1; 3 - "Neither Agree Nor Disagree" = 2; 4 - "Disagree" = 3; 5 - "Strongly Disagree" = 4. The possible range was from 0 points to 96 points. A score of 96 signifies a progressive educational philosophy and a score of 0 points signifies a traditional educational philosophy.

Statistical analysis

The basic purpose was to determine whether teachers' degree of dogmatism and educational philosophy were related to their acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies. Pearson product-moment correlations were computed among the four variables of dogmatism, philosophy, acceptance, and understanding to establish a basis for accepting or rejecting Hypotheses 1 through 5, dealing with the relationships between the variables.

Two-way and four-way analyses of variance were employed to determine the relationship between acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies and the descriptive variables described earlier in this chapter (sex, age, experience, undergraduate major, M.A. area, attendance at

summer institutes, application to summer institutes, and membership in professional organizations). The descriptive variables to be examined by two-way analysis of variance were selected after multiple-regression analysis showed that the amount of variance accounted for by many of the variables was insignificant. For those variables, one-way analysis of variance was conducted, so the reader could see the extent to which the variable related to each of the four dependent variables--the test scores. The variables which accounted for the greatest amount of variance, and were included in the two-way analyses of variance were age, sex, and years of teaching experience of the respondents. The analyses of variance which had the dogmatism or philosophy trichotomy as a classification variable provided corroborative findings for the correlation coefficients.

In each case where analysis of variance showed a significant difference among the adjusted group means for the dependent variable, Scheffe tests were conducted to determine which pairs of means were significantly different.

To test Hypotheses 6 and 7, two-way analyses of variance were conducted with the dogmatism and philosophy trichotomies as independent, classification variables and acceptance or understanding scores as the dependent variable to determine whether there were significant interactions.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to determine whether teachers' scores on the Acceptance of the New Social Studies and Understanding of the New Social Studies Scales were related to their scores on the Dogmatism Scale and the Educational Philosophy Scale. The relationships of acceptance and understanding scores to other variables were also explored.

The findings are reported in clusters of analyses by test scores and independent variables. The relationship of the findings to the hypotheses for this study (see Chapter III), are discussed in Chapter V. For the interested reader, Table 37, page 135 summarizes the fate of the hypotheses.

Pearson product-moment correlations were computed between scale scores. Also, one-way analyses of variance were computed to determine whether any of the descriptive variables was related significantly to scores on the four tests. Because age, sex, and years of teaching experience are variables frequently examined in educational research, two-way analyses were computed to allow testing of interactions as well as main effects.

Correlations Among Scales

To determine the degree of the relationship among the scores on the four tests administered in this study, Pearson product-moment correlations were computed. It was reported earlier that because of the low reliability achieved on the understanding test, corrections for attenuation (McNemar,

1962, p. 153) were also computed. As noted, the corrected correlations between two variables is an estimate of the correlation which would result if both instruments had perfect reliability. Table 15 presents both the actual coefficients and the coefficients between Understanding Test scores and the other variables corrected for attenuation.

Table 15

Correlations Among Acceptance, Understanding, Dogmatism, and Philosophy Scores

	Understanding	Dogmatism	Philosophy
Acceptance	.25 .57*	-.46	.65
Understanding		-.19 -.37*	.31 .58*
Dogmatism			-.50

*Correlation coefficients corrected for attenuation.

Scatter diagrams were plotted for the four variables to inspect for degree of linearity. The bivariate distribution in each scatter diagram was linear and appeared as might be expected given the coefficients in Table 15. For example, with a correlation of -.19 (-.37 corrected for attenuation) between Acceptance and Understanding test scores, the scatter diagrams showed a lack of relationship. For the correlation of .65 between Acceptance and Philosophy test scores, a definite linear pattern developed.

Table 15 shows a correlation of .25 (.57 corrected for attenuation) between Acceptance and Understanding test scores, which is low, but statistically significant ($P < .05$) with the large sample ($N = 222$). A correlation of this size indicates what was expected--that is, that although acceptance and understanding are related (they have, corrected, about 32.5 percent of their variance in common), they are basically independent. Even if one understands the rationales of the NSS, there is no guarantee that he will accept them. Conversely, accepting the rationales of the NSS does not mean the teacher understands them.

The negative correlation of -.46 between Acceptance and Dogmatism test scores indicates that a person who accepted the NSS rationales tended to score lower (be more openminded) on the Dogmatism Scale than one who rejected them. This is in line with the conjecture in the Review of the Literature.

The highest correlation is between Acceptance and Philosophy test scores ($F = .65$). In previous discussions (Chapters II and III), literature was cited which supported the contention that the NSS projects are, for the most part, designed around the assumption that teachers who would accept the curriculum products would hold to a more progressive educational philosophy. This finding is consistent with that assumption.

A correlation of .31 (.58 corrected for attenuation) was found between Understanding and Philosophy test scores. Teachers with scores indicating a progressive educational philosophy tended to have somewhat higher scores on the Understanding of the NSS Scale than did teachers with more traditional leanings, as indicated by Philosophy Scale Scores.

The negative correlation of -.50 between dogmatism and philosophy scores supports the contention in the Review of the Literature that dogmatic

teachers would tend to subscribe to traditional educational philosophies.

Analysis of Variance--Seven Descriptive Variables

The following seven tables are one-way analyses of variance for the descriptive variables (except age, sex, and years of teaching experience) for which information was gathered, and scores on the four tests of Acceptance and Understanding of the New Social Studies, Dogmatism, and Educational Philosophy. For the convenience of the reader, the analyses are clustered by descriptive variable in the tables; each table includes for one descriptive variable, the F-ratios, significance levels, N's, means, and standard deviations for all four tests. Where F-ratios were significant, Scheffe tests were conducted on all pairs of means. Any significant differences between pairs of means are mentioned in the text.

Undergraduate Major

Table 16 reports no significant differences in acceptance, understanding, or philosophy mean scores among respondents grouped by undergraduate major. A difference, significant at the .05 level, is reported among the Dogmatism Scale means.

Scheffe tests conducted between every combination of means showed differences significant at the .01 level between sociology (51.0) and economics (63.6) dogmatism means, and between sociology and geography (59.3) dogmatism means. A difference significant at the .05 level was found to exist between geography and economics means. It should be noted, however, that the total N for those three undergraduate majors was 13.

Table 16

Analyses of Variance of Means on Four Tests
with Undergraduate Major as the Independent Variable

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Acceptance Scores				
Undergraduate Major	7	113.49	1.43	NS
Error Term	214	79.50		
Understanding Scores				
Undergraduate Major	7	7.67	1.24	NS
Error Term	214	6.16		
Dogmatism Scores				
Undergraduate Major	7	380.75	2.43	.05
Error Term	214	156.63		
Philosophy Scores				
Undergraduate Major	7	69.16	.51	NS
Error Term	214	135.16		

Undergraduate Major	N	Acceptance Mean	SD	Understanding Mean	SD	Dogmatism Mean	SD	Philosophy Mean	SD
History	78	86.3	9.9	11.4	2.3	49.4	12.9	60.0	13.4
Political Science	31	87.1	6.8	11.7	2.4	51.4	12.6	60.5	10.9
Sociology	4	93.5	3.7	12.0	2.9	41.0	9.1	62.0	4.8
Geography	4	83.5	2.9	12.0	2.2	59.3	9.7	60.0	1.4
Economics	5	79.8	9.7	10.8	3.8	63.6	10.3	57.0	9.1
Social Studies	12	82.7	8.8	9.8	3.3	47.9	8.8	55.2	9.6
Social Science	54	80.0	2.3	10.8	2.3	56.0	13.8	59.7	11.7
Other	34	83.9	8.3	11.1	2.5	53.8	10.4	56.9	9.5

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 2.05/2.73 with 7/200 d.f.

In light of the small N's for the means found to be significantly different, any conclusions based on the differences reported in Table 16 should be drawn with caution as the samples are so small that they may not represent adequately the population of majors.

Master's Degree area

From the sample of 222, 110 respondents had received master's degrees in a variety of social science fields and 112 had no master's degree. Table 17 shows that no significant differences were reported among mean scores on any of the four tests, regardless of the area in which the respondents had received the master's degree or whether they had none.

Because virtually 50 percent of the sample had not received a master's degree, we had, for this particular variable, two groups of nearly equal size. An analysis was run to determine whether teachers with master's degrees had a significantly different mean on any of the four tests than did their colleagues with less formal training.

Table 18 indicates that no significant differences occurred between the mean scores for the two groups on Acceptance or Understanding of the NSS or Educational Philosophy Scales. A difference significant at the .01 level was found between the dogmatism mean scores of the two groups. Those without master's degrees had a mean dogmatism score of 54.5, while the group having earned the master's degree had a mean dogmatism score of 50.3. Low and Shaver (1971, p. 28) reported that several studies of education and dogmatism had found that those with more formal education tended to be more openminded.

Table 17

Analyses of Variance of Scores on Four Tests
with Master's Degree Area as the Independent Variable

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Acceptance Scores				
Master's Area	8	38.48	.47	NS
Error Term	213	82.20		
Understanding Scores				
Master's Area	8	79.65	1.29	NS
Error Term	213	61.48		
Dogmatism Scores				
Master's Area	8	272.73	1.70	NS
Error Term	213	159.64		
Philosophy Scores				
Master's Area	8	97.38	.72	NS
Error Term	213	134.41		

Master's Area	N	Acceptance Mean	Acceptance SD	Understanding Mean	Understanding SD	Dogmatism Mean	Dogmatism SD	Philosophy Mean	Philosophy SD
History	44	80.6	22.5	11.4	2.2	48.1	10.8	60.0	9.1
Pol. Science	8	84.4	3.2	10.4	2.5	50.1	16.7	54.3	7.3
Sociology	3	59.3	5.2	11.7	2.6	43.7	8.1	65.3	8.5
Economics	2	84.5	20.5	14.0	1.4	57.0	2.8	53.5	6.4
Psychology	5	71.8	18.4	9.7	3.4	52.7	7.9	51.4	6.7
Internat. Rel.	14	79.8	24.7	10.1	2.8	52.9	11.7	60.6	9.2
Social Science	22	80.7	17.5	11.7	1.7	55.0	11.3	60.3	13.7
Social Studies	12	86.9	8.9	11.8	3.3	47.5	9.9	64.0	11.4
No Master's	112	80.2	20.2	11.0	2.6	54.7	13.8	58.5	12.5

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 1.98/2.60 with 8/200 d.f.

Table 18

Analyses of Variance of Scores on Four Tests with Master's Degree or no Master's Degree as the Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Acceptance Scores				
Master's/no Master's Degree	1	77.63	.96	NS
Error Term	220	80.59		
Understanding Scores				
Master's/no Master's Degree	1	66.41	1.07	NS
Error Term	220	62.11		
Dogmatism Scores				
Master's/no Master's Degree	1	1068.21	6.69	.01
Error Term	220	159.62		
Philosophy Scores				
Master's/No Master's Degree	1	145.37	1.09	NS
Error Term	220	133.02		

	N	Acceptance Mean	Acceptance SD	Understanding Mean	Understanding SD	Dogmatism Mean	Dogmatism SD	Philosophy Mean	Philosophy SD
Master's Degree	110	81.4	20.4	11.3	2.4	50.3	11.3	60.2	10.4
No Master's Deg.	112	80.1	20.2	11.0	2.6	54.5	13.7	58.4	12.6

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.89/6.76 with 1/200 d.f.

Summer Institute attendance

We also wished to determine if attendance at social studies summer institutes sponsored by NDEA, NSF, or EPDA would be significantly related to the respondents' acceptance and understanding of the NSS scores in particular. Seventy teachers in the sample had attended at least one social studies summer institute, while 152 teachers had never received that kind of in-service training. Table 19 reports no significant difference in mean scores on any of the four tests.

We wanted to know whether the large group of respondents who had not attended a social studies summer institute (N = 152) had significantly different means when compared to institute attenders as a group. Table 20 presents the results of analyses of variance for teachers who had attended at least one summer institute in the social studies and those who had never attended. Whether teachers had attended one or more social studies summer institutes or had never attended an institute was not significantly related to the mean scores on any of the four tests. It should be noted that the standard deviations for the acceptance scores were found to be significantly different at the .01 level when an F-ratio was computed. This indicates greater dispersion among the mean acceptance scores of teachers who had attended summer social studies institutes.

Application to summer institutes

Respondents were asked to indicate if they had ever applied for a social studies summer institute, and if so, how many times. We thought it important to learn if teachers who reported that they sought additional in-service training would have significantly different scores on any of the four tests administered in this study. Table 21 indicates they did not.

Table 19

Analyses of Variance of Scores on Four Tests with Attendance at Summer Institutes as the Independent Variable

Source of Variance	D.F.	M.S.	F	P*
Acceptance Scores				
Attendance at Summer Institute	4	48.56	.59	NS
Error Term	217	81.17		
Understanding Scores				
Attendance at Summer Institute	4	2.86	.45	NS
Error Term	217	6.28		
Dogmatism Scores				
Attendance at Summer Institute	4	49.72	.29	NS
Error Term	217	165.80		
Philosophy Scores				
Attendance at Summer Institute	4	48.14	.35	NS
Error Term	217	134.64		

Summer Institute Attendance	N	Acceptance Mean	Acceptance SD	Understanding Mean	Understanding SD	Dogmatism Mean	Dogmatism SD	Philosophy Mean	Philosophy SD
Never attended	152	82.2	17.9	11.2	2.4	52.7	12.6	59.8	11.9
NDEA	34	79.2	21.4	11.5	2.7	52.2	11.6	57.2	10.4
NSF	20	75.5	25.9	10.9	2.8	51.2	14.7	59.6	9.7
NDEA & NSF	14	75.0	31.2	11.5	2.7	51.7	16.2	59.1	13.2
NDEA, NSF & EPDA	2	88.5	2.1	9.5	2.1	61.0	2.8	61.0	8.5

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 2.41/3.41 with 4/200 d.f.

Table 20

Analyses of Variance of Scores on Four Tests with Attendance or No Attendance at Summer Social Studies Institutes as the Independent Variable

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Acceptance Scores				
Attendance/no Attendance	1	.03	.004	NS
Error Term	220	80.94		
Understanding Scores				
Attendance/no Attendance	1	.35	.056	NS
Error Term	220	6.24		
Dogmatism Scores				
Attendance/no Attendance	1	22.14	.13	NS
Error Term	220	164.37		
Philosophy Scores				
Attendance/no Attendance	1	89.20	.67	NS
Error Term	220	133.27		

Attendance/ No Attendance	N	Acceptance Mean	Acceptance SD	Understanding Mean	Understanding SD	Dogmatism Mean	Dogmatism SD	Philosophy Mean	Philosophy SD
Attendance	70	77.7	24.4	11.3	2.7	52.1	13.3	58.4	10.6
No Attendance	152	82.2	17.9	11.2	2.4	52.7	59.8	59.8	11.9

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.89/6.76 with 1/200 d.f.

Table 21

Analyses of Variance of Scores on Four Tests with Application to Summer Institutes as the Independent Variable

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Acceptance Scores				
Application to Summer Institute	3	24.27	.29	NS
Error Term	218	81.35		
Understanding Scores				
Application to Summer Institute	3	6.39	1.02	NS
Error Term	218	6.21		
Dogmatism Scores				
Application to Summer Institute	3	52.14	.32	NS
Error Term	218	165.27		
Philosophy Scores				
Application to Summer Institute	3	111.18	.83	NS
Error Term	218	133.37		

Application to Summer Institute	N	Acceptance Mean	Acceptance SD	Understanding Mean	Understanding SD	Dogmatism Mean	Dogmatism SD	Philosophy Mean	Philosophy SD
Never Applied	131	82.3	17.8	11.0	2.5	52.2	12.8	59.2	12.2
Applied Once	60	78.0	24.4	11.8	2.3	52.3	11.8	60.5	9.7
Applied Twice	23	77.9	24.3	10.9	2.9	52.3	16.2	59.3	12.3
Applied more than Twice	8	82.3	8.0	9.9	2.8	57.5	6.9	51.8	10.5

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 2.65 with 3/200 d.f.

Membership in professional organizations

Whether reported membership in professional organizations was related to degree of dogmatism, educational philosophy, acceptance and understanding of the NSS was also examined. The findings in Table 22 indicate that reported professional memberships were not significantly related to teachers' mean scores on any of the four tests.

Analyses of Variance on Acceptance Scores with Selected Descriptive Variables and Dogmatism Category

Age, sex, and years of teaching experience are variables frequently examined and reported in educational studies, particularly those concerned with attitudes toward teaching and teacher characteristics. Since this study focused upon two teacher characteristics, degree of dogmatism and educational philosophy, and attempted to assess teacher attitudes about the NSS, a closer examination of the variables identified above seemed justified. Consequently age, sex, and years of experience were each used as independent variables in two-way analyses of variance with both dogmatism and educational philosophy as the other independent variables. These analyses permitted a check on whether age, sex, or years of teaching experience interacted with either dogmatism or philosophy to affect means on the Acceptance or Understanding of the NSS Scales. Results using Dogmatism as an independent variable with the Acceptance of the NSS Scale as the dependent variable are reported next, followed by the same analyses with Understanding of the NSS Scale as the dependent variable. Then the same pattern of analysis with acceptance and understanding scores will be reported again, but with educational philosophy replacing dogmatism as an independent variable.

Table 22

Analyses of Variance of Scores on Four Tests with Membership in Professional Organizations as the Independent Variable

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Acceptance Scores				
Professional Membership	5	45.32	.56	NS
Error Term	216	81.44		
Understanding Scores				
Professional Membership	5	84.81	1.37	NS
Error Term	216	61.64		
Dogmatism Scores				
Professional Membership	5	174.51	1.07	NS
Error Term	216	163.54		
Philosophy Scores				
Professional Membership	5	61.30	.45	NS
Error Term	216	134.73		

Professional Membership	N	Acceptance Mean	Acceptance SD	Understanding Mean	Understanding SD	Dogmatism Mean	Dogmatism SD	Philosophy Mean	Philosophy SD
Teachers' Assn.	94	83.8	12.1	11.2	2.4	51.7	11.8	58.8	11.8
Soc. Stu. Org.	9	65.4	25.9	12.1	2.4	48.3	11.0	66.6	12.8
TA & SS Org.	80	78.4	23.3	11.6	2.4	53.6	13.9	58.5	11.5
TA & Learned Soc.	5	87.0	7.0	11.0	4.3	60.0	7.9	59.4	9.1
SS Org., TA & LS	28	78.8	26.7	10.1	2.7	52.7	13.6	59.9	11.1
No Prof. Org.	6	91.5	5.2	9.8	1.8	50.3	15.1	65.0	17.7

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 2.26/3.11 with 5/200 d.f.

Dogmatism, sex, and acceptance

The distribution of dogmatism scores of all respondents was divided into thirds to provide a trichotomy of high, medium, and low dogmatic categories as one independent variable. For the first analysis, sex was the other independent variable and acceptance scores were the dependent variable.

Table 23 shows that the mean acceptance scores of males and females (86.0 and 86.3 respectively) were not significantly different.

Table 23

Analysis of Variance of Acceptance Scores with Sex and Dogmatism Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Sex	1	2.06	.03	NS
Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	1335.32	19.87	.01
Sex X Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	33.32	.49	NS
Error Term	216	67.19		

Dogmatism Trichotomy	Male	Female		S.D.
Low Dogmatic	87.6**	89.5	88.5	8.4
Medium Dogmatic	87.8	87.4	87.6	8.3
High Dogmatic	82.5	82.1	82.3	7.7
	86.0	86.3		
S.D.	2.4	2.6		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.89/6.76 with 1/200 d.f.; 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.

**The means in this and the following tables reported are adjusted for any differences in N's for the groups whose means are being compared as well as for any other variables as covariates. The Standard Deviations are unadjusted.

Acceptance Scale means for the dogmatism trichotomy groups were significantly different at the .01 level. Using the Scheffe method (Ferguson, 1966, p. 296), it was found that differences significant at the .01 level existed between low dogmatism (LD) and high dogmatism (HD) and medium dogmatism (MD) and HD dogmatism category means, with no significant difference between the LD and MD category means.

There was no significant interaction (F = .49) between sex and dogmatism in affecting acceptance scores. That is, the within cell means were not different from what would be expected looking at the main effect means.

Dogmatism, age, and acceptance

The next analysis used the same dogmatism trichotomy and age as independent variables. Table 24 indicates that the difference among the acceptance means for the various age groupings was not significant. There was, however, again a difference, significant at the .01 level, among the means for the dogmatism trichotomy. Scheffe tests conducted on the trichotomy main effect means showed that differences significant at the .01 level existed between LD and HD means and MD and HD means, while there was no significant difference between LD and MD means.

The interaction between age and dogmatism was not significant (F = .73).

Dogmatism, years of teaching experience, and acceptance

Years of teaching experience were not significantly related to mean scores on the Acceptance of the NSS Scale (Table 25). Again, however, the dogmatism trichotomy means differed significantly at the .01 level.

Table 24

Analysis of Variance of Acceptance Scores with
Age and Dogmatism Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Age	7	137.44	.01	NS
Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	1439.93	22.08	.01
Age X Dogmatism Trichotomy	14	48.05	.73	NS
Error Term	198	65.20		

	Age Categories								
	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	over 50		SD
LD	91.7	86.0	92.0	88.4	89.8	86.6	85.6	88.5	8.4
MD	86.1	84.0	84.6	88.3	87.8	89.6	85.6	87.6	8.3
HD	92.0	87.0	87.0	84.9	84.1	87.7	60.3	87.3	7.7
	89.9	85.7	87.3	87.2	87.3	88.0	77.2		
SD	9.9	8.5	8.9	8.9	8.1	7.8	8.4		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.; 2.05/2.73 with 7/200 d.f.; 1.80/2.28 with 14/200 d.f.

Table 25

Analysis of Variance of Acceptance Scores with
Experience and Dogmatism Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Experience	7	127.81	1.94	NS
Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	434.54	6.75	.01
Experience X Dogmatism Trichotomy	14	47.47	.73	NS
Error Term	198	64.31		

	Years of Teaching Experience							
	1-3	4-6	7-10	11-15	16-20	over 20		SD
LD	91.3	90.9	90.2	91.0	90.1	85.2	89.7	8.4
MD	89.3	88.3	87.9	86.2	88.2	87.0	87.8	8.3
HD	82.0	84.6	82.2	79.2	74.1	75.3	79.6	7.7
	87.5	87.9	86.7	82.1	84.1	82.5		
SD	8.4	9.9	8.9	8.0	8.4	8.6		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.; 2.05/2.73 with 7/200 d.f.; 1.80/2.28 with 14/200 d.f.

Scheffe tests conducted on the trichotomy main effect means showed differences significant at the .01 level between LD and HD means, and MD and HD means, with no significant difference between LD and MD main effect means. No significant interaction (F = .73) was reported between dogmatism and the experience categories.

Analysis of Variance on Understanding Scores with Selected Descriptive Variables and Dogmatism Category

Tables 26, 27, and 28 report analyses of variance with understanding scores as the dependent variable and with either age, sex, or years of teaching experience as an independent variable along with the Dogmatism trichotomy.

Dogmatism, sex, and understanding

Table 26 reports no significant difference between the adjusted mean Understanding Scale scores of males and females. Although there was a difference, barely significant at the .05 level, on the Dogmatism trichotomy, Scheffe tests conducted on all pairs of main effect means failed to produce significant differences. It should be noted, however, that the Scheffe test is very rigorous, leading to fewer significant differences than other tests of significance (Ferguson, 1966, p. 297). No significant interaction (F = .62) was found between dogmatism and sex in affecting understanding scores.

Dogmatism, age, and understanding

Table 27 indicates there was no difference among the various age groups' mean understanding of the NSS scores. The main effect dogmatism trichotomy means again differed significantly at the .01 level. In

Table 26

Analysis of Variance of Understanding Scores with Sex and Dogmatism Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Sex	1	11.89	1.98	NS
Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	20.98	3.28	.05
Sex X Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	3.80	.62	NS
Error Term	216	6.07		

Dogmatism Trichotomy	Male	Female		S.D.
Low Dogmatic	10.9	11.6	11.3	2.2
Medium Dogmatic	11.1	11.7	11.4	
High Dogmatic	10.9	10.9	10.9	
	10.9	11.4		
S.D.	2.4	2.6		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.89/6.76 with 1/200 d.f.; 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.

Table 27

Analysis of Variance of Understanding Scores with Age and Dogmatism Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Age	7	7.49	1.27	NS
Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	24.78	4.73	.01
Age X Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	9.14	1.53	NS
Error Term	198	5.87		

	Age Categories								
	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	over 55	SD
LD	11.3	12.0	11.1	10.3	10.1	11.1	13.5	10.5	11.3 2.2
MD	11.6	12.4	10.3	11.5	9.8	13.2	10.3	12.2	11.4 2.3
HD	12.2	10.4	11.0	11.2	10.0	8.9	9.4	8.4	10.2 2.7
	11.7	11.6	10.8	11.0	10.0	11.1	11.0	10.6	
S.D.	2.7	2.5	2.0	2.4	3.1	2.0	2.4	3.5	

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.; 2.05/2.73 with 7/200 d.f.

contrast to the results in the previous analysis, Scheffe tests indicated that differences significant at the .01 level existed between LD and HD, and MD and HD means, while there was no significant difference between the LD and MD means. There was no significant interaction (F = .62) between sex and dogmatism.

Dogmatism, years of experience, and understanding

Years of teaching experience were not significantly related to the mean understanding of the NSS scores. As has been consistently the case, however, a difference significant at the .01 level was found among the dogmatism trichotomy main effect means. Scheffe tests confirmed again that differences at the .01 level existed between LD and HD, and MD and HD main effect means, while there was no significant difference between LD and MD means. Again, the interaction effect was not significant.

Table 28

Analysis of Variance of Understanding Scores with Dogmatism Category and Experience as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Experience	7	6.00	.99	NS
Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	36.24	5.91	.01
Experience X Dogmatism Trichotomy	14	5.05	.80	NS
Error Term	198	6.13		

	Experience Categories								
	1-3	4-6	7-10	11-15	16-20	21-25	26-30	over 30	S.D.
LD	11.9	12.0	11.7	10.5	10.9	11.0	13.0	14.0	11.9	2.2
MD	12.4	11.5	10.7	11.4	11.0	12.3	13.0	11.0	11.7	2.3
HD	10.8	11.9	10.6	10.4	9.7	10.6	7.0	9.3	10.1	2.7
	11.7	11.8	11.0	10.8	10.5	11.3	11.0	11.4		
S.D.	2.5	2.5	2.2	2.7	2.4	2.3	3.8	2.7		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.; 2.05/2.73 with 7/200 d.f.; 1.80/2.28 with 14/200 d.f.

Analyses of Variance on Acceptance Scores with Selected Descriptive Variables and Philosophy Category

At the outset of this study, it was hypothesized that one of the characteristics of the teacher which might be related to his ability to accept and understand the rationales of the NSS was his educational philosophy (see discussion, Chapters II and III). In the following section, we report analyses of sex, age, and years of teaching experience to determine if they interact significantly with teachers' philosophy to affect scores on the dependent variables.

Educational philosophy, sex, and acceptance

Table 29 indicates that males and females do not differ significantly in their mean acceptance scores. There were differences, significant at the .01 level between the philosophy trichotomy main effect means. Scheffe

Table 29

Analysis of Variance of Acceptance Scores with Sex and Philosophy Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Sex	1	19.96	.38	NS
Philosophy Trichotomy	2	2634.22	51.12	.01
Sex X Philosophy Trichotomy	2	30.70	.59	NS
Error Term	216	51.54		

Philosophy Trichotomy	Male	Female	combined	S.D.
Low Philosophy	78.6	78.5	78.5	7.7
Medium Philosophy	87.1	89.4	88.3	6.7
High Philosophy	91.8	91.5	91.6	7.0
	85.8	86.5		
S.D.	9.2	8.4		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.89/6.76 with 1/200 d.f.; 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.

tests showed differences significant at the .05 level between low philosophy (LP) and medium philosophy (MP) and LP and high philosophy (HP) category means, with no significant difference between MP and HP means. The interaction effect (F = .59) was not significant.

Educational philosophy, age, and acceptance

As was the case when dogmatism was the independent variable, age was not significantly related to acceptance means. There were differences, significant at the .01 level, between philosophy trichotomy main effect means. Scheffe tests indicated that LP and MP, and LP and HP main effect trichotomy means differed significantly at the .01 level, while there was no significant difference between MP and HP means. The interaction between age and philosophy was not significant (F = .66).

Table 30

Analysis of Variance of Acceptance Scores with Age and Philosophy Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance					d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Age					6	112.21	2.03	NS
Philosophy Trichotomy					2	2422.14	47.90	.01
Age X Philosophy Trichotomy					12	33.38	.66	NS
Error Term					201	50.35		
	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	over 50	S.D.
				Age Categories				
LP	80.5	79.4	81.6	80.1	79.7	75.5	75.6	79.2	7.7
MP	88.5	86.9	88.0	92.4	89.4	86.0	87.2	88.4	6.7
HP	95.6	93.2	93.5	91.5	91.4	88.9	83.6	91.1	7.0
	88.2	86.5	87.7	88.0	86.7	83.5	82.2		
S.D.	9.9	8.5	9.0	9.0	8.1	7.8	10.4		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.; 2.14/2.90 with 6/200 d.f.; 1.80/2.38 with 12/200 d.f.

Educational philosophy, years of experience, and acceptance

No significant relationship between the years of teaching experience and the acceptance score of the respondent was found, as reported in Table 31. There was a difference, significant at the .01 level, between the main effect means on the philosophy trichotomy.

Scheffe tests showed a difference between LP and MP main effect means significant at the .05 level, while the difference between LP and HP means was significant at the .01 level. There was no significant difference between MP and HP main effect means. No significant interaction (F = .78) was found between experience categories and philosophy in affecting acceptance scores.

Table 31

Analysis of Variance of Acceptance Scores with Experience and Philosophy Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance							d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Experience							5	163.55	3.34	NS
Philosophy Trichotomy							2	2852.39	58.20	.01
Experience X Philosophy Trichotomy							10	37.93	.78	NS
Error Term							204	49.01		
	Experience Categories									
	1-3		4-6	7-10	11-15	16-25	over 25			S.D.
LP	80.5		81.1	79.4	81.0	75.0	74.7	78.6		7.7
MP	87.8		87.8	91.0	88.8	90.2	85.0	88.4		6.7
HP	92.9		94.7	93.5	93.3	86.6	87.4	91.4		7.0
	87.0		87.9	87.9	87.7	84.0	82.4			
S.D.	8.4		9.9	9.0	8.0	8.4	9.0			

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.; 2.26/3.11 with 5/200 d.f.; 1.87/2.41 with 10/200 d.f.

Analysis of Variance on Understanding Scores with Selected Descriptive Variables and Philosophy Category

Tables 32, 33, and 34 report analyses of variance with understanding scores as the dependent variable and with either age, sex, or years of teaching experience as an independent variable along with the philosophy trichotomy.

Philosophy, sex, and understanding

Table 32 reports no significant difference between the adjusted mean Understanding Scale scores of males and females. Differences significant at the .01 level were reported on the Philosophy trichotomy. Scheffe tests conducted between each pair of trichotomy main effect means revealed that differences significant at the .01 level existed between LP and HP,

Table 32

Analysis of Variance of Understanding Scores with Sex and Philosophy Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Sex	1	15.78	2.71	NS
Philosophy Trichotomy	2	35.51	6.11	.01
Sex X Philosophy Trichotomy	2	2.23	.39	NS
Error Term	216	5.81		

	Male	Female		S.D.
LP	9.97	10.61	10.29	7.7
MP	11.18	12.17	11.67	6.7
HP	11.52	11.72	11.62	7.0
	10.90	11.50		
S.D.	2.4	2.6		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.89/6.76 with 1/200 d.f.; 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.

and LP and MP main effect means, while no significant difference was found between MP and HP means. The interaction (F = .39) between sex and philosophy was not significant.

Educational philosophy, age, and understanding

No significant difference was found among the mean understanding scores of respondents in various age categories. There were differences, significant at the .05 level, between philosophy trichotomy main effect means. Results of Scheffe tests conducted between all pairs of main effect means differed significantly at the .01 level, while there was no significant difference between MP and HP main effect means. The interaction (F = 1.89) was not significant.

Table 33

Analysis of Variance of Understanding Scores with Age and Philosophy Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Age	6	3.93	.70	NS
Philosophy Trichotomy	2	31.28	5.60	.05
Age X Philosophy Trichotomy	12	10.41	1.89	NS
Error Term	201	5.58		

	Age Categories								
	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	over 50		S.D.
LP	11.8	10.9	10.4	9.4	9.0	10.3	10.9	10.4	7.7
MP	11.2	11.8	12.0	11.8	13.4	11.5	9.7	11.6	6.7
HP	10.9	12.4	12.4	11.9	9.8	11.6	12.0	11.6	7.0
	11.3	11.7	11.6	11.0	10.8	10.7	10.9		
S.D.	2.7	2.5	2.5	2.4	3.1	2.0	2.4		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.; 2.14/2.90 with 6/200 d.f.; 1.80/2.28 with 12/200 d.f.

Educational philosophy, years of experience, and understanding

The number of years a respondent has been teaching is not significantly related to his understanding of the NSS, as reported in Table 34. The table also reports significant differences between the philosophy trichotomy main effect means at the .01 level. Scheffe tests indicated differences significant at the .01 level between LP and MP, and LP and HP main effect means. There was no significant difference between MP and HP means. Again, there was no significant interaction (F = 1.30).

Table 34

Analysis of Variance of Understanding Scores with Experience and Philosophy Category as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Experience	5	6.90	1.03	NS
Philosophy Trichotomy	2	34.66	6.05	.01
Experience X Philosophy Trichotomy	10	7.49	1.30	NS
Error Term	204	5.72		

	Experience Categories							
	1-3	4-6	7-10	11-15	16-25	over 25		S.D.
LP	11.5	11.3	10.3	9.4	9.0	10.8	10.4	7.7
MP	11.7	12.6	10.8	12.3	11.1	10.8	11.6	6.7
HP	12.0	11.4	12.4	11.4	11.6	11.0	11.7	7.0
	11.7	11.8	11.2	11.0	10.6	10.9		
S.D.	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.7	2.4	2.3		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.; 2.26/3.11 with 5/200 d.f.; 1.87/2.41 with 10/200 d.f.

Dogmatism and Philosophy Interaction with Acceptance and Understanding Scores as Dependent Variables

In addition to examining the relationships between respondents' acceptance and understanding of the NSS and their degree of dogmatism and educational philosophy, we wished to determine whether there was a significant interaction between the philosophy and dogmatism trichotomies. Table 35 is a two-way analysis of variance with dogmatism and philosophy trichotomies as the independent variables and acceptance scores as the dependent variable. Differences significant at the .01 level are reported for acceptance scores on both the dogmatism and philosophy trichotomies. This, of course, is consistent with results reported on every table where acceptance scores were the dependent variable and the dogmatism or philosophy trichotomies were independent variables.

Table 35

Analysis of Variance of Acceptance Scores with Dogmatism and Philosophy Trichotomies as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	534.35	11.26	.01
Philosophy Trichotomy	2	2185.38	41.87	.01
Dogmatism X Philosophy Trichotomy	4	17.76	.38	NS
Error Term	213	46.58		

	Philosophy				
	Low	Medium	High		S.D.
Low Dogmatism	80.9	90.4	93.8	88.3	8.4
Medium Dogmatism	81.0	89.7	91.4	87.3	8.3
High Dogmatism	76.8	84.1	87.2	82.8	7.7
	79.6	84.1	90.8		
S.D.	7.7	6.7	7.0		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.; 5.63/13/46 with 4/200 d.f.

Scheffe tests conducted on the dogmatism trichotomy main effect means show differences significant at the .01 level between LD and HD, and between MD and HD main effect means. There was no significant difference between LD and MD means. When Scheffe tests were conducted between the pairs of means on the philosophy trichotomy, it was found that differences significant at the .01 level occurred between LP and HP, and MP and HP main effect means. There was no significant interaction between the dogmatism and philosophy trichotomies. That is, the within cell acceptance means are as would be expected, given the mean effect means for each trichotomy.

Table 36 is a two-way analysis of variance with dogmatism and philosophy trichotomies as the independent variables and understanding scores as the dependent variable. There was no significant difference between

Table 36

Analysis of Variance of Understanding Scores with Dogmatism and Philosophy Trichotomies as Independent Variables

Source of Variance	d.f.	M.S.	F	P*
Dogmatism Trichotomy	2	6.55	1.11	NS
Philosophy Trichotomy	2	37.55	6.38	.01
Dogmatism X Philosophy Trichotomy	4	1.47	.25	NS
Error Term	213	5.89		

	Philosophy			
	Low	Medium	High	S.D.
Low Dogmatism	10.4	11.8	11.8	11.3	2.3
Medium Dogmatism	10.5	12.0	11.8	11.4	2.3
High Dogmatism	10.1	10.9	11.4	10.8	2.7
	10.3	11.4	11.7		
S.D.	2.4	2.4	2.6		

*The critical values necessary for significance at the .05/.01 levels are: 3.04/4.71 with 2/200 d.f.; 5.63/13/46 with 4/200 d.f.

dogmatism trichotomy means. A difference significant at the .01 level was reported for the philosophy trichotomy means. Scheffe tests computed between the philosophy trichotomy main effect means showed differences significant at the .01 level between LP and MP, and LP and HP main effect means and no significant difference between MP and HP means. There was no significant interaction between dogmatism and philosophy. Again, the lack of interaction indicates the within cell means are as would be expected, given the main effect means of both trichotomies.

Summary of Findings

Pearson product-moment correlations were computed to determine the degree of the relationship between the ~~means~~ scores on the four tests used in this study--Acceptance of the New Social Studies, Understanding of the New Social Studies, Dogmatism, and Educational Philosophy. The correlations between the variables were significant at either the .05 or .01 levels, as discussed following Table 15.

One-way analyses of variance were conducted on seven descriptive variables with the means on each of four tests as dependent variables. When teachers were grouped according to several descriptive variables, and analyses of mean scores on the four tests carried out, the only significant differences among group means were on the Dogmatism Scale and undergraduate major ($P < .05$) and Dogmatism Scale and Master's Degree/no Master's Degree ($p < .01$).

Two-way analyses of variance were computed using age, sex, or years of experience as independent variables and either dogmatism or philosophy as the other independent variable, with each of the four tests as the

dependent variable. Results were found to be uniformly consistent. No significant differences were found among the acceptance or understanding mean scores of teachers grouped by sex, age, or years of experience.

Every analysis with either the dogmatism or the philosophy trichotomies as an independent variable, with acceptance scores as the dependent variable, differences significant at the .01 level were reported between the trichotomy main effect means. With understanding scores as the dependent variable, in every analysis differences significant at either the .05 or .01 level were found among dogmatism or philosophy trichotomy main effect means.

No significant interactions were found between any combinations of independent variables with either acceptance or understanding scores as the dependent variable, including an analysis with the dogmatism and philosophy trichotomies as the independent variables.

The findings reported in this chapter will be discussed in relation to the hypotheses upon which the study focused in the discussion of results in Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion of Results

This study was prompted by the apparent lack of impact that the so-called New Social Studies projects have had upon teachers in the field and by extension, upon the students they are charged with preparing to operate effectively in a pluralistic society.

Over the past two decades social studies has come under sharp attack, from both the political right and left. Many rightists insist that the thrust of the social studies curriculum should be to instill in young people a respect of past accomplishments, and to teach that our elected leaders were and are exemplars of truth, morality, and unerring leadership ability. It is claimed that the nation's schools are not training young people to value the rich heritage which has made America unique among modern nation states. Some leftists criticize the content of the social studies because the materials emphasize just those facets the rightists claim are neglected. At the same time, they insist that young people must be made aware that recorded events have, for the most part, reflected the biases of the historians and social scientists who, they claim, present a warped perspective of the nation's role in the events of the community of man.

Some criticisms have perhaps been justified, as the sequence of social studies course offerings which was recommended by the Committee on the Social Studies in 1917 went relatively unchanged and unchallenged until

after World War II. Then, following science and mathematics curriculum development under government auspices in the wake of Sputnik, funds became available for curriculum development in social studies in the early 1950's--Project Social Studies resulting in the New Social Studies (NSS).

Until that time many social studies teachers had emphasized citizenship education as the central goal of social studies instruction. But citizenship education was translated into the common practice of having every student "learn" about those events which have shaped American ideals and explain the bases for the heritage they were urged to cherish and foster. On the other hand, the NSS projects have aimed to have students examine the causes and effects of present and past policies and decisions. Rather than merely presenting accounts selected by historians and other social scientists, the strategy has been shifting to presenting alternative interpretations designed to spark questions from students, and to make it possible for them to evaluate data from an empirical stance. To many of the contemporary curriculum developers, the major concern has been to educate students to make rational decisions about the controversial issues facing the society.

The NSS projects were designed to add new dimensions to the methodology and content of virtually all K-12 social science course offerings. Many of the projects were discussed and reviewed in a previous chapter (see Chapter III). Most of the Project Social Studies curricula have been completed--it is justified to expect that the results of years of research and development; field testing and review; in-service training and publicity through local, regional, and national training

institutes; would result in visible, measurable changes in social studies programs across the country. Because many curriculum leaders think that significant changes in the approach to social studies in the classroom have not occurred, it seemed important to seek plausible reasons why teachers may be continuing to structure their instruction around traditional approaches. Too often, it appears, the curriculum still fails to value and deal with legitimately the questions students wish to raise concerning issues they consider to be vital to the society in which they will soon be accepted as citizens.

There are many possible reasons for the failure of the New Social Studies to have greater impact upon the social studies classroom. Among the causes cited by teachers and curriculum developers are: traditional pre-service training, lack of administrative support for innovative programs, general suspicion on the part of the public against social studies curricula which venture into areas of controversy, lack of time and expertise for teachers to develop relevant courses, inadequate district funds to purchase New Social Studies materials, classes too large to encourage effective student discussion, and severely limited social studies elective course offerings. However, the teacher is the key person in the classroom, and therefore a central force in bringing about change. This study has focused upon two teacher characteristics--dogmatism and educational philosophy--that might be related to how teachers view their roles, with implications for how adaptive they might be to the New Social Studies.

The rationales and strategies of the NSS have been a radical departure from the curriculum traditionally followed, and presumably accepted, by a great majority of social studies teachers for the past

forty years. Many of the strategies teachers are now asked to employ by the NSS call for intellectual openness and could, as well, be considered innovative. At least one study, in addition to the present one, has found a high correlation between educational philosophy and dogmatism. Sears (1967, p. 48) concluded that the traditionalist (one who emphasizes subject matter mastery, and teaches his students what he believes they should know) would be more closedminded--authority oriented and opposed to change.

Some studies reviewed in Chapter II presented evidence suggesting that more dogmatic, traditional teachers would be intellectually less capable of accepting or understanding the rationales of the NSS; that they would tend to reject, or at least perform poorly in a classroom setting in which their success, and the success of their students, depended, to a large degree, upon their ability to accommodate open-ended, critical discussions.

It was assumed, based upon the findings discussed in the Review of the Literature, that the more openminded a teacher was, the more progressive would be his educational philosophy and the more likely he would be to accept the curricular changes in the New Social Studies. In addition to the dogmatism and philosophy scales, a two-part questionnaire was designed to discover the extent to which teachers accepted the goals and objectives and understood the rationales of the New Social Studies.

To test the hypotheses generated for this study, 27 schools in the San Francisco Bay area were randomly selected. Social studies teachers from those schools were asked to respond to the four tests measuring their degree of dogmatism, educational philosophy, and acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies. Completed questionnaires were returned

from 222 respondents, an estimated 94 percent of all social studies teachers in the schools selected.

The relationship of acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies

Hypothesis 1 stated:

> There will be no relationship between the scores on the Understanding Scale and the Acceptance Scale of the Test of Understanding and Acceptance of the New Social Studies.

The hypothesis was rejected because the Pearson product-moment correlation was .25 (.57 corrected for attenuation), which was significant at the .01 level. Although significant, the correlation coefficient was small--with the two tests having less than 7 percent of their variance in common. Even under ideal circumstances (with the corrected correlation .57), the variance in common would be about 32 percent. Therefore, even though the hypothesis was rejected, the two tests are basically independent. We may conclude that understanding the rationales of the NSS is no guarantee that a person will be highly accepting of them. Also, it is possible for a teacher to feel positively toward the rationales of the NSS without fully understanding them.

Dogmatism and its relationship to acceptance of the New Social Studies

A pearson product-moment correlation was run between Dogmatism and Acceptance scores. In addition, the distribution of the 222 respondents' dogmatism scores was split into thirds, resulting in a trichotomy of high, medium, and low dogmatism groups. Mean acceptance scores for the cells in the dogmatism trichotomy were analyzed to provide, along with the correlation, a test of Hypothesis 2:

There will be no relationship between scores on the Acceptance Scale and scores on the Dogmatism Scale.

Hypothesis 2 was rejected on two bases. First, the product-moment correlation of -.46 was significant at the .01 level. The correlation indicated that more openminded (low dogmatic) teachers tended to have higher acceptance scores and that those who were more closedminded (high dogmatic) tended to reject the rationales of the NSS. Secondly, Tables 23, 24, and 25 (see Chapter IV) showed that the difference among the mean acceptance scores of the dogmatism trichotomy groups was significant at the .01 level.

Dogmatism and its relationship to understanding of the New Social Studies

Hypothesis 3 stated:

There will be no relationship between scores on the Understanding Scale and scores on the Dogmatism Scale.

The Pearson product-moment correlation of -.19 between understanding and dogmatism scores was significant at the .05 level. However, it must be remembered that the Understanding Scale was a less reliable instrument than the Acceptance Scale (see discussion Chapter II), so correlations with it were corrected for attenuation. The corrected correlation coefficient between Dogmatism and Understanding scores was reported at -.37, significant at the .01 level. Tables 26, 27, and 28 indicate that when mean understanding scores for the dogmatism trichotomy were analyzed, the difference among them was significant at either the .05 or .01 levels. The Scheffe tests for the trichotomy main effect means for all three tables indicated that low dogmatic subjects had a greater understanding of the rationales of the NSS than did those who were in either the medium

or high dogmatic categories. Because of the statistically significant relationship between understanding scores and dogmatism scores, and the significant relationships on each table where the dogmatism trichotomy was an independent variable, we must reject Hypothesis 3.

Philosophy and its relationship to acceptance of the New Social Studies

The fourth hypothesis examined in this study was:

> There will be no relationship between scores on the Acceptance Scale and scores on the Educational Philosophy Scale.

A Pearson product-moment correlation of .65 was computed between respondents' acceptance and educational philosophy scores. This was the highest correlation coefficient obtained in this study. How teachers viewed their role and responsibility in the classroom was significantly related to whether they were willing to accept the NSS rationales.

The distribution of scores on the Educational Philosophy Scale was divided into thirds, resulting in a trichotomy of high, medium, and low categories, similar to that for dogmatism. Tables 29, 30, and 31 report differences among the acceptance main effect means for the philosophy trichotomy significant at the .01 level. Scheffe tests conducted between the pairs of main effect means for the philosophy trichotomy showed that subjects who fell into the high philosophy category (progressive) had higher mean acceptance scores than those who were grouped in the low philosophy category (traditional). On the basis of the high correlation (.65) between philosophy and acceptance scores and the significant differences among the philosophy trichotomy main effect means, Hypothesis 4 was rejected.

Philosophy and its relationship to understanding of the New Social Studies

Interest in the extent to which one's educational philosophy would be related to his understanding of the NSS generated Hypothesis 5:

> There will be no relationship between scores on the Understanding Scale and scores on the Educational Philosophy Scale.

To test the hypothesis, the product-moment correlation was again used. The correlation between the two variables was .32 (.58 corrected for attenuation) which was significant at the .01 level. Additionally, differences among the main effect understanding means for the philosophy trichotomy were significant at either the .05 or .01 levels, as shown on Tables 32, 33, and 34. Scheffe tests conducted between the main effect understanding means on the philosophy trichotomy indicated that high philosophy category teachers had significantly higher understanding scores than their low philosophy category colleagues. Again, on the basis of the significant ($P < .01$) correlation coefficient between philosophy and understanding scores, and the significant difference among the philosophy trichotomy understanding means, we reject Hypothesis 5.

Interactions between dogmatism and philosophy trichotomies and acceptance and understanding of the New Social Studies

Two-way analyses of variance were computed to determine whether there were significant interactions between the dogmatism and philosophy trichotomies with acceptance and understanding scores as the dependent variables.

Hypothesis 6 stated:

> There will be no significant interaction between high, medium, and low categorizations on the C and D Scales in affecting scores on the Acceptance Scale.

There was no significant interaction between the dogmatism and philosophy trichotomies (Table 35), and Hypothesis 6 was accepted.

Understanding scores and the two trichotomies were the subject of Hypothesis 7, which stated:

> There will be no significant interaction between high, medium, and low categorizations on the C and D Scales in affecting scores on the Understanding Scale.

A two-way analysis of variance indicated no significant interaction between the dogmatism and philosophy trichotomies (Table 36). Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was accepted.

Disposition of the hypotheses

Seven hypotheses were generated to serve as a guide to the research for this study, and as the basis for statistical analysis. The hypotheses were not specifically discussed nor disposed of as findings were reported in order to make a clearer, more concise presentation of the data, and because some of the tables contained information which had an important bearing on more than one hypothesis.

Table 37 reports the disposition of the seven hypotheses which guided the research for this study. For the convenience of the reader, the table also includes reference to the tables that contain data upon which the fate of the hypothesis was decided. Of the seven null hypotheses stated, five were rejected.

Additional Findings

It will be recalled that, in addition to testing seven hypotheses, descriptive variables that might be related to Acceptance and Understanding of the NSS were analyzed. It was found that there were no significant

Table 37

Disposition of the Null Hypotheses for the Analyses Conducted for the Study

Hypothesis*	Disposition	Table Reference	
		Table	Page
1. There will be no relationship between the scores on the Understanding Section and the Acceptance Section on the Test of Understanding and Acceptance of the New Social Studies	Rejected	15	96
2. ... Scores on the Acceptance Scale and scores on the Dogmatism Scale	Rejected	15 23 24 25	96 110 111 112
3. ... Scores on the Understanding Scale and scores on the Dogmatism Scale	Rejected	15 26 27 28	96 114 115 116
4. ... Scores on the Acceptance Scale and scores on the Educational Philosophy Scale	Rejected	15 29 30 31	96 117 118 119
5. ... Scores on the Understanding Scale and scores on the Educational Philosophy Scale	Rejected	15 32 33 34	96 121 122 123
6. ... significant interaction between high, medium, and low categorizations on the C and D Scales in affecting scores on the Acceptance Scale	Accepted	35	124
7. ... between high, medium, and low categorizations on the C and D Scales ... scores on the Understanding Scale	Accepted	36	125

*The first null hypothesis is worded in its entirety, and hypothesis 2 through 7 are abbreviated.

differences among undergraduate group mean scores on any of the tests, with the exception of dogmatism, which was significant at the .05 level (see discussion, Chapter IV). The area in which groups received master's degrees was not significantly related to scores on any of the tests; nor were there significant differences on the tests between the group which had received the master's degree and the group which had not, except on the dogmatism test, where the difference was significant at the .01 level (see discussion, Chapter IV).

Whether teachers had attended one or more summer institutes or had never attended an institute had no significant relationship to their mean acceptance or understanding of the NSS scores or to their mean dogmatism or educational philosophy scores. Also, there were no significant differences on any of the tests between respondents who had applied for and those who had never applied for a summer social studies institute fellowship.

When grouped by membership in professional organizations, the respondents were not significantly different in their mean acceptance, understanding, dogmatism, or philosophy scores.

In brief, none of the descriptive characteristics of the teachers in the sample were significantly related to acceptance or understanding of the New Social Studies. When the same characteristics were examined in regard to dogmatism and educational philosophy, similar results were found, with only two exceptions, noted above.

Conclusions

It could reasonably be concluded, based on the characteristics of the closedminded person as described by Rokeach (1954, 1960), and results

of this study which clearly established that openminded teachers had significantly higher acceptance and understanding scores than did closed-minded teachers, that not all social studies teachers are equally willing to give up their cherished role of singular expert in the classroom. Apparently, many believe it is their responsibility to determine the scope and breadth of the daily and unit agenda. Teachers in our sample whose dogmatism scores fell in the lowest third (high dogmatic) had significantly lower acceptance and understanding scores than did their colleagues whose dogmatism scores fell in the highest third (low dogmatic). The high dogmatic group might well be the teachers who, in general, most account for the lack of implementation of the New Social Studies. At this point, however, it may only safely be concluded that there is a definite relationship between a teacher's degree of dogmatism and his general acceptance and understanding of the rationales of the New Social Studies.

In general, Project Social Studies has contributed toward the recognition that individual students are unique and capable of independent decision-making. Some, although not all, of the projects of recent years, have compiled materials, devised activities, and asked questions to help students become independent thinkers--as rational decisionmakers. Yet, as has been previously noted (see Chapters I and II), most of the project developers seem to assume that progressive teachers will be using their products.

Our study found that "progressively" oriented teachers had significantly higher acceptance and understanding scores than did their "traditionally" oriented colleagues. The more "progressive" teacher believes that each student is possessed of an independently thinking

mind, capable of absorbing, classifying, sorting, judging, and understanding concepts in such a way that serve him to best advantage. The more "traditional" teacher believes his primary task is to pass on to his students the concepts and data he himself has learned through formal study and research.

Many "traditional" teachers believe that the introduction of materials designed to promote "open-ended" discussion muddies the waters of the safe stream of the "value-free" curriculum. The teacher who is relatively comfortable living with the philosophy that his students' major responsibility is to learn the body of knowledge he prescribes, seems likely to reject attempts to tamper with his "course," as our data imply.

Again, because of the high correlation between teachers' philosophies and their acceptance and understanding of the NSS, it is safe to conclude that educational philosophy is an important factor in determining whether a teacher will accept or can understand the rationales of the NSS.

From our study of secondary social studies teachers from schools in the San Francisco Bay area, it appears likely that openminded, progressive teachers are more inclined and able to deal effectively with the products currently available and those that will be marketed in the next few years, than are closedminded, traditional teachers.

It must be concluded, on the basis of previous research and the findings of this study that dogmatism and philosophy are two characteristics of teachers that are strongly linked to their ability to accept and understand the rationales of the New Social Studies. Although beyond the scope of this study, it might be concluded that the effect that one's degree of dogmatism and educational philosophical orientation has

upon his intellectual make-up could effect efforts to bring about change throughout the entire curriculum, at all grade levels.

Recommendations

As a result of the findings reported in this study, eight recommendations are offered:

1. From our limited sample, we came up with findings about characteristics of social studies teachers, and peripheral information about pre-service and in-service training, which have powerful implications for further research. It is recommended that this study be widely replicated, to test the validity of the reported findings, and to determine whether our findings may be generalized beyond the San Francisco Bay Area.

2. There is no reason to think that social studies teachers do not exhibit a normal range of open-closedmindedness (Low & Shaver, 1971, pp. 80, 90, 96), and it is likely that they possess educational philosophies which range from traditional to progressive. It is important, therefore, for curriculum directors in school districts to know as much as possible about the dogmatism and educational philosophy of individual teachers, if there are plans to implement one or more of the NSS products. It is suggested that curriculum workers should not assume that merely making materials available will result in dramatic change in the quality of instruction or in improvement in the skills of students. The Review of Literature for this study has suggested that closedminded teachers have a difficult time adapting to new situations. If, for example, many teachers on a social studies staff are closedminded, and they are given NSS materials to work with, it may be assumed that they will be

uncomfortable, hostile, and frustrated. This could result, not in more enlightened instruction and skill development for the students, but in the deterioration of the social studies program. If the Dogmatism and Educational Philosophy Scales were administered to social studies staff members, along with the Acceptance of the New Social Studies and Understanding of the New Social Studies Scales, curriculum coordinators might receive valuable guidance for dealing with teachers in the implementation of the NSS. If teacher characteristics are thus identified, we are led logically to a third recommendation.

3. Although much cannot be done to change the characteristics of the teacher, once identified, in-service training in the rationales and strategies of the NSS could be geared to closedminded and traditional teachers to help make them more effective in using NSS materials. Districts which wish to introduce NSS products into their classrooms could make use of training techniques which have proved successful in recent years. Seminars on NSS rationales and demonstrations of the effective use of inquiry strategies, employing the actual materials which will eventually be presented to the students may be particularly effective for high dogmatic, traditional teachers, if supportive techniques are utilized to reduce the threat to the teacher. Micro-teaching, colleague observation, and interaction analysis may be less suitable training aids for closedminded teachers, who are more likely to be uncomfortable if observed by colleagues or curriculum consultants. This is a suitable subject for further research.

It should be understood, however, that despite in-service training, some teachers may fall short of the expectations of the curriculum

coordinators in changing their attitudes and methodology to accommodate the rationales of the NSS. Therefore, a good strategy would be to first introduce NSS materials to teachers who have been identified as openminded and progressive (from scores on the Dogmatism Scale and Educational Philosophy Scale), with the expectation that they would be most effective in their use. Successful teachers could act as models for their colleagues who have a more difficult time making the transition from textbook reading and testing for retention of data to the classroom where students and teacher work cooperatively to learn social science concepts and/or reach decisions about important issues.

Before in-service training can be effective, the in-service leaders must have clear ideas about what each NSS project is about. As discussed previously, there is no clear-cut agreement on a definition of social studies and there is an accompanying lack of coordination between the goals and objectives of the various projects (reviewed earlier, see Chapter II). In order to make the third recommendation operable, it is clear that a fourth recommendation is important.

4. For those projects which have not already been marketed, project developers should clearly state, either in the teacher's manual or in the student text, the philosophical and pedagogical assumptions which guided the development of their programs. Both students and teachers should know why they are dealing with certain concepts, how they are expected to arrive at rational decisions, and what they may do with the information they have acquired.

5. Our research indicates that teachers who have recently completed their social studies training are not significantly more accepting or

understanding of the rationales of the NSS than are their more experienced colleagues. Therefore, further research needs to be done to determine whether pre-service social studies teachers are being adequately educated in the attitudes and trained in the methodology required to be effective practitioners of the New Social Studies. This study cannot serve as the basis for concluding social studies candidates around the country are not receiving adequate training. It is recommended that studies be conducted to determine whether beginning social studies teachers elsewhere are more aware of the general thrust of the NSS than our data suggest. The same extension of this study is called for on the master's degree level.

6. Closely related to the above suggestion is the recommendation that social studies departments of colleges of education around the country re-evaluate their curricula in light of the evidence from this study that recently trained social studies teachers do not differ significantly in their acceptance and understanding of the NSS from teachers trained prior to the social studies "revolution," and that teachers with master's degrees do not differ from teachers without master's degrees in their acceptance and understanding of the NSS.

7. The Acceptance Scale, with a reported reliability coefficient of .78 here, should be widely used to replicate this study. In addition to testing the reliability reported here, and perhaps more importantly, replication would broaden generalizability beyond the San Francisco Bay Area. If the instrument continues to prove as reliable as for this study, it could be used by curriculum coordinators and department chairmen to assess the extent to which their teachers accept the framework of the NSS. The instrument could also be used in college methods courses as a pre-post

measure to assist in evaluating the effectiveness of the methods instruction.

8. The Understanding Scale obviously needs further development before being used as a pre-post measure to assess teachers' understanding of the NSS. The items presently in the scale should be revised and additional items added to increase the reliability. The Spearman-Brown Prophesy formula indicated that the test would have to be lengthened to 57 statements to attain a reliability coefficient of .80. A refined scale could contribute substantially to the information needed by curriculum developers and coordinators to help them in arriving at the goals and objectives of the NSS, which have been articulated in recent years.

This has been an exploratory study, but one which raised important questions. There is obviously a need for much additional research related directly to the findings in this study, but also in peripheral areas to which one might be tempted to over-generalize. It is further recognized that, in regard to the relationships of dogmatism and educational philosophy to acceptance and understanding of the NSS, only the surface has been scratched. For those researchers who might be interested in further exploration, our findings suggest that research in a number of areas would add important information for the further development and implementation of the New Social Studies.

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APPENDICES

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY · LOGAN, UTAH 84321

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

BUREAU OF
RESEARCH SERVICES

Date

Superintendent _____
_____ School District
_____
_____ ,California _____

Dear Superintendent _____,

The Bureau of Educational Research at Utah State University is engaged in research concerned with secondary social studies teachers and their acceptance and understanding of the new social studies rationales.

Over the past decade, many new social studies curriculum materials have been produced, utilizing the expertise of social scientists. One hoped for result of the materials has been to show students how the different disciplines, such as sociology, anthropology, and political science, are structured and to teach them the methodologies employed by those in the disciplines. Although it would be important for curriculum developers and school personnel to know the impact of the new social studies materials on teachers, relevant research data are lacking.

In this study, we wish to determine the extent to which teachers understand the rationales and strategies of the new social studies curricula and whether they would accommodate the new social studies objectives in their own curriculum planning.

All secondary schools in three Bay Area counties are included in our research population. From the more than one hundred schools, a sample of thirty were randomly selected for the study. _____ High School in _____ School District was one of those selected.

We would appreciate your permission to contact Mr. _____, Principal of _____ High School, to obtain his cooperation in this research. If Mr. _____ agrees, we will contact, in person or by telephone, the social studies department chairman or any other person whom he designates to work directly with us. We will not contact _____ until I receive written approval from you.

The design calls for each social studies teacher to complete a four-part questionnaire. Administration of the questionnaire will take approximately forty minutes. Full administration instructions will be sent, along with questionnaires and answer sheets and a postage-paid return envelope. Neither your district, the school, nor any individual teacher will be identified in the study. Results of the research will be sent to participating districts in the spring or fall of 1972.

Superintendent _____
Date
Page 2

Mr. Donald E. Anctil, a social studies teacher at Willow Glen High School, has been designated as the local liaison with schools in the Bay Area sample. Please direct any questions to me or to him at

Willow Glen High School
2001 Cottle Avenue
San Jose, California 95125
Telephone: 266-7340

I trust that we can count on your cooperation and look forward to your reply.

Sincerely,

James P. Shaver
Professor and Chairman
Educational Research

JPS:jma

cc: Mr. Donald E. Anctil

APPENDIX B

Date

Mr. _____, Principal
_____ High School
_____, California

Dear Mr. _____:

The Bureau of Educational Research at Utah State University is engaged in research concerned with secondary social studies teachers and their acceptance and understanding of the new social studies rationales.

Over the past decade many new curriculum materials have been produced utilizing the expertise of social scientists. One hoped for result of the materials has been to show students how the different disciplines, such as sociology, anthropology, and political science, are structured and to teach them the methodology employed by those in the discipline.

Although it would be important for curriculum developers and school personnel to know the impact of the new social studies materials on teachers, relevant research data are lacking. In this study we wish to determine the extent to which teachers understand the rationales and strategies of the new social studies and whether they would accommodate the new social studies objectives in their own curriculum planning.

All secondary schools in three bay area counties have been included in our research population. From the more than one hundred schools, a sample of thirty were randomly selected for the study. _____ High School was one of those selected.

We have received authorization from Superintendent _____ to contact you for permission to conduct our research in your school. If you agree, we will contact your social studies department chairman or any other person you designate to supervise the administration of the questionnaire.

The design calls for each social studies teacher to complete a four-part questionnaire which will take approximately forty minutes. With your permission, I will send to you, your department chairman, or whomever you designate, test booklets, answer sheets, and full administration instructions.

Neither your district, school, nor any individual teachers will be identified in the study. Results of the research will be sent to you in the spring or fall of 1972.

Please direct correspondence or any questions regarding the nature of the research study to:

Mr. Donald E. Anctil
Willow Glen High School
2001 Cottle Avenue
San Jose, California 95125
Telephone: 266-7340

Looking forward to your reply, I remain;

Sincerely,

Donald E. Anctil

APPENDIX C

Donald E. Anctil
Willow Glen High School
2001 Cottle Avenue
San Jose, California 95125

Date

Mr. _____, Chairman
Social Science Department
_____ High School
_____ Avenue
_____, California

Dear Mr. _____:

Thank you for your letter of January 10, indicating your willingness to cooperate in our study on social studies teachers. I am particularly pleased because I realize how crowded teachers' schedules are, and how difficult it is to find time for any but the most pressing departmental business.

In our study we wish to determine the extent to which in-service teachers understand the rationales and strategies of the new social studies and whether they would accommodate the new social studies objectives in their curriculum planning. With this in mind, allow me to outline what would be expected of you.

Neither your district, the school, nor any individual teachers will be identified in the study. Results of the research will be sent to all concerned in the spring or fall of 1972.

The questionnaire contains four sections which will require approximately forty minutes to complete. Approximately 300 bay area social studies teachers are involved in the study. So that all teachers will receive the same instructions, and to better utilize their time, it would be best if your teachers could complete the questionnaire at a regularly scheduled department meeting in the near future. If that is not practical, could another time be set aside for group administration? In any event, it would be most helpful if the questionnaire is administered within the next ten days and returned in the postage-paid envelope as soon as possible.

Please follow these administration procedures:

Tell the teachers that this school has been selected at random to participate in a social studies research project. Neither the school nor any individual teacher will be identified in the study. The researchers do not have the names of any teachers.

The first section "A" asks for demographic information. Sections "B" and "C" deal with attitudes and opinions regarding social studies materials and methodology. Section "D" is a study of what the general public thinks and feels about a number of important social and personal questions. The final section, "E" asks questions about differing educational beliefs.

This study is concerned with your beliefs and attitudes and is not a test. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers to any of the questions.

I have included twelve sets of the questionnaire and answer sheets. If you have any questions regarding the administration of the questionnaire, I may be contacted at Willow Glen High School, 2001 Cottle Avenue, San Jose, California, 95125, Telephone 266-7340.

Again, we wish to express our sincere appreciation for your willingness to help gather these important data.

Sincerely,

Donald E. Anctil

APPENDIX D

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY

Bureau of Educational Research

SECONDARY SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS

GENERAL QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION "A"

TEACHERS FROM A LARGE NUMBER OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN NORTHERN CALIFORNIA ARE PARTICIPATING IN THIS RESEARCH AND THERE WILL BE NO ATTEMPT TO IDENTIFY YOU AS AN INDIVIDUAL. RESULTS OF THIS RESEARCH WILL BE SENT TO THE DEPARTMENT CHAIRMAN OF EACH PARTICIPATING SCHOOL, ALTHOUGH NO SCHOOL WILL BE IDENTIFIED BY NAME.

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR WILLINGNESS TO COOPERATE IN THIS STUDY!

Please record all answers on the attached answer sheet:

1. Sex: 0. male 1. female
   Age: 0. 21-25 1. 26-30 2. 31-35 3. 36-40 4. 41-45 5. 46-50 6. 51-55 7. over 55

3. Total number of years teaching experience (including current year):

   0. 1-3 1. 4-6 2. 7-10 3. 11-15 4. 16-20 5. 21-25 6. 26-30 7. Over 30

4. College Undergraduate Major

   0. History 1. Political Science 2. Sociology 3. Geography 4. Economics 5. Psychology 6. International Relations 7. Social Science 8. Social Studies 9. Other

5. If you have earned a Master's Degree, in what area?

   0. History 1. Political Science 2. Sociology 3. Geography 4. Economics 5. Psychology 6. International Relations 7. Social Science 8. Social Studies 9. Have not earned Master's Degree

6. If you have attended a summer institute in any of the social sciences, under what sponsorship?

   0. Have not attended a summer institute 1. NDEA 2. NSF 3. EPDA 4. NDEA & NSF 5. NDEA & EPDA 6. NSF & EPDA 7. NDEA, NSF & EPDA

7. If you have ever applied for an NDEA, NSF, or EPDA summer institute, how many times?

   0. Never applied 1. One time 3. Three times 4. More than three times

8. Membership in professional organizations:
   0. Teachers Associations (E.G. CTA, NEA, AFT)
   1. Social studies organization (e.g. CCSS, NCSS)
   2. Learned Society (e.g. AHA, AAPS)
   3. Teachers' association and social studies organization
   4. Teachers' association and Learned Society
   5. Social studies organization and Learned Society
   6. Social studies organization, teachers' association and Learned Society

SECTION "B"

QUESTIONNAIRE

THE FOLLOWING SECTION CONTAINS 16 STATEMENTS. FILL IN THE SPACE PROVIDED ON THE ATTACHED ANSWER SHEET ACCORDING TO HOW MUCH YOU WOULD AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE STATEMENT IF YOU WERE DESIGNING A NEW SOCIAL STUDIES COURSE. PLEASE ANSWER EACH QUESTION. MARK IN +1,+2,+3, or -1,-2,-3, DEPENDING UPON HOW YOU FEEL. THERE ARE, OF COURSE, NO "RIGHT" OR "WRONG" ANSWERS.

+1 I AGREE A LITTLE	-1 I DISAGREE A LITTLE
+2 I AGREE ON THE WHOLE	-2 I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE
+3 I AGREE VERY MUCH	-3 I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

1. Students should be taught to use strategies which will help them move from particular events to the universal.

2. Students should have historical events described to them in chronological sequence and be tested for retention at reasonable intervals.

3. Students are, for the most part, too immature and inexperienced to develop a set of values independently.

4. Students should be taught the skills necessary to make decisions.

5. Students should be shown how to develop and use tools of inquiry.

6. Students should learn subject matter knowledge because it is useful for its own sake.

7. Students should memorize facts as a basic part of the process of gaining and retaining knowledge.

8. Students should be encouraged to explore and discuss value conflicts.

9. Students should be taught those values which have been tested and revised by previous generations of successful Americans.

10. Students should be encouraged to formulate hypotheses and check them against data which they search out.

11. Students should test their beliefs and convictions against facts and values.

12. Students should not discuss problems or draw conclusions until they have the pertinent facts held in memory.

13. Students should be provided reliable facts and principles which support conclusions reached by social scientists.

14. Students should be allowed to determine what knowledge is of the most worth to them.

15. Students should be trained to be competent historians.

16. Students should be taught general ideas about human events.

SECTION "C"

PLEASE RATE THE FOLLOWING 18 STATEMENTS ABOUT SOCIAL STUDIES ALONG A CONTINUUM FROM "TRADITIONAL" TO "NEW" SOCIAL STUDIES. YOU MAY THINK SOME OF THE STATEMENTS ARE CLEARLY TRADITIONAL, IN WHICH CASE YOU WOULD SCORE THEM "1". STATEMENTS YOU THINK REFLECT THE NEW SOCIAL STUDIES WOULD BE SCORED "3". STATEMENTS WHICH YOU THINK CONTAIN ELEMENTS OF BOTH TRADITIONAL AND NEW THOUGHT, OR DO NOT CLEARLY REFLECT EITHER TRADITIONAL OR NEW THOUGHT, SHOULD BE SCORED "2".

TRADITIONAL ... NEW

1 2 3

Please mark 1, 2, or 3 on your answer sheet.

1. The best way to attain the goal of good citizenship is to have the students learn facts, principles, and beliefs which can be applied at a later time.

2. The social studies are those studies that provide understanding of man's way of living, of the basic needs of man, of the activities in which he engages to meet his needs, and of the institutions he has developed.

3. A legitimate aim of the social studies teacher is to develop the individual's ability to apply skills of rational inquiry in making and understanding social decisions.

4. A social studies teacher should be primarily concerned with transmitting selected concepts considered basic to the discipline.

5. A legitimate aim of the social studies teacher is to identify, with the cooperation of his students, problems that are of considerable concern to them and their society and to examine relevant facts and values underlying those problems.

6. A major task of the social studies teacher is to describe events, people, phenomena, and ideas that society deems worthy of being learned by all citizens.

7. A legitimate aim of the social studies teacher is to help students learn to examine various positions on matters of public policy.

8. The social studies curriculum should focus upon teaching the basic tools and methodology that the social scientist uses in generating new topics, new interpretations, new research, and new knowledge.

9. History, because of its concern with total human experience and its rather ill-defined boundaries, can and should serve as a common organizer of knowledge for the other social sciences.

10. The content of the social studies should reflect the significant problems and issues which have been identified by academicians within the social science disciplines.

11. A major responsibility of the social studies teacher is to help students examine reflectively issues in closed areas of American culture, such as sex, economics, religion, and social class.

12. A legitimate aim of social studies teachers is to persuade students of the ultimate rightness and wrongness of certain values.

13. The social studies curriculum should derive its structure from the basic social problems which persist from time to time and from society to society.

14. A legitimate aim of social studies teachers is to have their students study history and the social sciences to learn major facts and ideas.

15. A major task of the social studies teacher is to help students identify, clarify, and test ideas generated by their understanding that our culture is marked by rapid change and pluralism.

16. A major task of the social studies teacher is to have his students learn how the scholar collects and analyzes data.

17. Acquiring knowledge in and about the social sciences is an important end in itself.

18. A major task of the social studies teacher is to prepare students to internalize the right values of their society.

SECTION "D"

THE FOLLOWING IS A STUDY OF WHAT THE GENERAL PUBLIC THINKS AND FEELS ABOUT A NUMBER OF IMPORTANT SOCIAL AND PERSONAL QUESTIONS. THE BEST ANSWER IN EACH STATEMENT BELOW IS YOUR PERSONAL OPINION. WE HAVE TRIED TO COVER MANY DIFFERENT AND OPPOSING POINTS OF VIEW; YOU MAY FIND YOURSELF AGREEING STRONGLY WITH SOME OF THE STATEMENTS, DISAGREEING JUST AS STRONGLY WITH OTHERS, AND PERHAPS UNCERTAIN ABOUT OTHERS. WHETHER YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH ANY STATEMENT, YOU CAN BE SURE THAT MANY PEOPLE FEEL THE SAME AS YOU DO.

ON THE RESPONSE SHEET, FILL IN THE SPACE PROVIDED FOR EACH ANSWER ACCORDING TO HOW MUCH YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH IT. PLEASE FILL IN THE SPACE FOR EACH QUESTION. MARK IN +3,+2,+1,-1,-2,OR -3, DEPENDING UPON HOW YOU FEEL.

+1 I AGREE A LITTLE	-1 I DISAGREE A LITTLE
+2 I AGREE ON THE WHOLE	-2 I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE
+3 I AGREE VERY MUCH	-3 I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

1. In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders or experts who can be trusted.

2. My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he's wrong.

3. There are two kinds of people in this world: those who are for the truth and those who are against the truth.

4. Most people just don't know what's good for them.

5. Of all the different philosophies which exist in this world there is probably only one which is correct.

6. The highest form of government is a democracy and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are the most intelligent.

7. The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.

8. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.

9. Most of the ideas which get printed nowadays aren't worth the paper they are printed on.

10. Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.

11. It is only when a person devotes himself to an ideal or cause that life becomes meaningful.

12. Most people just don't give a "damn" for others.

13. To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to the betrayal of our own side.

14. It is often desirable to reserve judgment about what's going on until one has had a chance to hear the opinions of those one respects.

15. The present is all too often full of unhappiness. It is only the future that counts.

16. The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common.

17. In a discussion I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times to make sure I am being understood.

18. While I don't like to admit this even to myself, my secret ambition is to become a great man, like Einstein, or Beethoven, or Shakespeare.

19. Even though freedom of speech for all groups is a worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary to restrict the freedom of certain political groups.

20. It is better to be a dead hero than to be a live coward.

SECTION "E"

THE FOLLOWING 24 STATEMENTS ARE REPRESENTATIVE OF DIFFERING EDUCATIONAL BELIEFS, ON THE RESPONSE SHEET. FILL IN THE SPACE PROVIDED FOR EACH ANSWER ACCORDING TO HOW MUCH YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH IT. MARK IN 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5, DEPENDING ON HOW YOU FEEL.

THE DESIGN OF THIS OPINIONNAIRE REQUIRES THAT EVERY STATEMENT BE EVALUATED, SO PLEASE RESPOND TO EACH STATEMENT.

1	2	3	4	5
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

1. In this period of rapid change, it is highly important that education be charged with the task of preserving intact the long established and enduring educational aims and social objectives.

2. The true view of education is so arranging learning that the child gradually builds up a storehouse of knowledge that he can use in the future.

3. In assessing what man knows, there are no absolutes, only tentative conclusions based on the current accumulation of human experience.

4. Required reading of literary works, even though it may bring an unfavorable attitude toward literature, is necessary in a sound educational program.

5. To learn means to devise a way of acting in a situation for which old ways are inadequate.

6. In the interest of social stability, the youth of this generation must be brought into conformity with the enduring beliefs and institutions of our national heritage.

7. Learning is a process of mastering objective knowledge and developing skills by drill, trial and error, memorization, and logical deduction.

8. The teacher must indoctrinate her students with correct moral principles in order to bring about their healthy moral development.

9. Moral education is the continuous criticism and reconstruction of ideals and values.

10. The traditional moral standards of our culture should not just be accepted; they should be examined and tested in solving the present problems of students.

11. The backbone of the school curriculum is subject matter; activities are useful mainly to facilitate the learning of subject matter.

12. A teacher may properly teach that some laws are unchanging and certain in their essential nature.

13. Moral learning is experimental; the child should be taught to test alternatives before accepting any of them.

14. Minimum standards of achievement, in the form of requirements to be met by all students, must be demanded at every level of education.

15. Existing knowledge is tentative and is subject to revision in light of new facts.

16. A knowledge of history is worthwhile in itself because it embraces the accumulated wisdom of our ancestors.

17. An activity to be educationally valuable should train reasoning and memory in general.

18. The teacher is a channel of communication, transmitting knowledge from those who know to those who do not know.

19. The best preparation for the future is a thorough knowledge of the past.

20. The curriculum should contain an orderly arrangement of subjects that represent the best of our cultural heritage.

21. Child life is not a period of preparation, but has its own inherent value.

22. The aim of instruction is mastery of knowledge.

23. There is no reality beyond that known through human experience.

24. Learning is essentially a process of increasing one's store of information about the various fields of knowledge.

APPENDIX E

Section "A"

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Section "B"

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Section "C"

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DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

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4 5 6

APPENDIX F

December 15, 1971

Mr. James P. Shaver
Professor of Education
Bureau of Educational Research
Utah State University
Logan, Utah 84321

Dear Professor Shaver:

This is in response to your letter of November 29 requesting permission to contact certain principals of high schools in this district for the purpose of conducting a questionnaire study in regard to social studies curriculum material. You may feel free to contact the principals of the schools named which are in this district. The current principal of _____ High School is Mr. _____. Mr. _____ is principal of _____ High School; Mr. _____ is principal of _____ High School; and Mr. _____ is principal of _____ High School.

After the principals have reviewed the necessary requirements for participation, they will indicate to you their willingness to become a part of your study.

Sincerely yours,

Superintendent

APPENDIX G

Donald E. Anctil
1125 Camino Pablo
San Jose, California 95125

January 26, 1972

Mr. _____
Social Science Department Head
_____ High School
_____ Avenue
_____, California

Dear Mr. _____:

I sent a packet of social studies questionnaires and a cover letter to you on January 5, 1972. I realize, of course, how difficult it is to set up time for group administration of a questionnaire. My concern is that you might not have received the materials. If that is the case, I would be happy to send another set.

If the packet did arrive, and you have run into difficulty in administering the questionnaire, again, I would do whatever I could to assist. In any event, I am most anxious to receive the completed questionnaires and answer sheets, so that I may complete the study in the spring.

If you have any questions, or wish assistance, don't hesitate to contact me at Willow Glen High School, 2001 Cottle Avenue, San Jose, California, 95125, Telephone: 266-7340, or at the above address after 4:00 p.m., telephone 286-0929.

Looking forward to hearing from you, I remain,

Respectfully,

Donald E. Anctil

VITA

Donald Edward Anctil

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Dissertation: Dogmatism and Philosophy: Their Effects Upon Teacher Acceptance and Understanding of the New Social Studies

Major Field: Curriculum Development and Supervision, Secondary Education

Biographical Information:

Personal Data: Born Lowell, Massachusetts, March 1, 1932. Married Delia Schizzano September 3, 1955; two sons--Eric, 14 and Paul, 12.

Education: 1957, B.A. San Francisco State College, Major--Social Studies, Minor--Speech; 1968, M.A. San Jose State College, Major--Social Studies, Minor--Political Science, History; 1972 completed requirements for doctor of education, Utah State University, Major--Curriculum Development and Supervision, Support areas--Political Science, Sociology.

Professional Experience: Teaching Experience: 1957-59, Social Studies Teacher, Bret Harte High School, Angels Camp, California; 1959-62, Social Studies Teacher, Petaluma High School, Petaluma, California; 1962-72, Department Chairman, Social Studies Teacher, Willow Glen High School, San Jose, California; 1969-70, Instructor, Department of Secondary Education, Utah State University, EPDA Summer Institute in Government--specializing in Shaver-Larkins Analysis of Public Controversy curriculum. Related Experiences: 1967, NDEA Project consultant, California State Department of Education; 1966-67, Member, California State Framework for Social Studies Evaluation Committee; 1969, Member National Council for the Social Studies Writing Committee--producing Standards for Social Studies Teachers. Professional Associations: 1964-1972, Santa Clara County Council for the Social Studies, 1967--Vice President, 1968--President-Elect, 1969-President, 1966-68--Director of three SCCCSS Workshops; 1964-72, California Council for the Social Studies, 1966-69, Member CCSS Board of Directors; 1964-72, National Council for the Social Studies, 1966-70, Member California delegation to the NCSS House of Delegates. Fellowships: 1966, NDEA Summer Institute in History--Oregon State University, Director: Dr. George Barr

Carson, Jr.; 1967, Advanced Placement Institute--San Jose State College, Director: Dr. Brett Melendy; 1968, NSF Summer Institute in Sociology--Stanford University, Director: Dr. Richard E. Gross; 1969, EPDA Summer Institute in Government--Utah State University, Staff Member--(Urban Specialist), Director: Dr. Dan Jones; Assistantship: 1969-70, Researcher, Bureau of Educational Research--Utah State University, Director: Dr. James P. Shaver.